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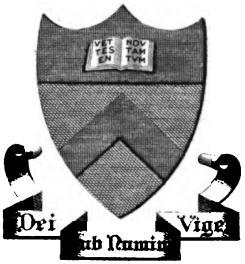

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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW;

OR

LITERARY JOURNAL,

ENLARGED:

From SEPTEMBER to DECEMBER, *inclusive*,

M, DCCC, XX.

With an APPENDIX.

" Tres mihi convivæ propè dissentire videntur,
Poscentes vario multùm diversa palato.
Quid dem ? quid non dem ?"

Hor. Ep. 1. 81.

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TABLE

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review, — see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

A

ABBOT, 67
Academy, Royal, of France, See *Memoirs*.
———, Royal Irish, Transactions of, Vols. XII. and XIII. 158
Aguilhar, a Tragedy, 212
Algebra, Rudiments of, 408
America, *South*, Reports on, 83
———, ———, Voyage to, *ib.*
———, ———, Narrative of an Expedition to, 109
———, *North*, Statistical Reports of, and Travels through, by Seybert, Warden, Melish, and Bristed, 113. 375
———, ———, Appeal respecting, 297
America, View of the Poetry of, 297
Amyntas, Translation of, 17
Analysis, Combinatorial, Essays on, 408
Animals, inferior, on the Treatment of, 223
Appleton's (Miss) Early Education, 332
Arctic Regions, Account of, 225. 361

B

Barton's Poems, 267
Bayly on the State of the Poor, 320
Bell on the Huntingdon Peerage, 335
Bennett's Original Poems, 434

465628

Digitized by Google

Boué's Geological Essay on Scotland, 493
Brockwridge's Voyage to South America, 83
Bristed's America and her Resources, 113. 375

C

Chess, See *Greco*, *Pohlman*, *Observations*.
Chieftain of the Vale, a Poem, 328
Chronological Review of French History, 534
Colton's Lacon; many Things in a few Words, 441
Comforter, a Poem, 94
*** *Correspondence with the Reviewers*, 112. 224. 336. 448
Cove's Memoirs of the Duke of Marlborough, 337
Cranz's History of Greenland, 259
Crayon's Sketch-Book, 198
Cresswell's Moscow, a Tragedy, 214
Crowe's Zoophilos; on the Treatment of inferior Animals, 223
Crusaders a Romance, 437
Curwen's Report to the Workington Agricultural Society, 333

D

Dallas's Sir Francis Darrel, a Novel, 436
Delany, Mrs., Letters from, 439
Dew's Harold, a Tragedy, 100
Discourse on the Duty, &c. of Early Rising, 224
Divorce, Doctrine of, 144
Drake's Winter-Nights, 352

E

Early Education, 332
Early Rising, on the Duty of, 224
Economy, Political, on the Principles of, 416
Elizabeth, Queen, Lectures on the Literature of her æra, 59
Ellen Fitzarthur, a Tale, 430
Essays and Sketches of Life and Character, 369
Etna, Mount, Travels to, 511
Etymology, English, Observations on, 2d Edition, 445
Evans's Progress of Human Life, 458
Europe and its Colonies, 521

F

Fayet, See *Nougarède*.
Ferdoosi's Hero-Book of Iran, 449
Flowers of Rhetoric, 221
Fouqué, See *La Motte*.
Fragment of the History of John Bull, 223
France, Travels in, 105

G

Gamble's View of Society in the North of Ireland, 39
Geology of Scotland, Essay on, 493
Germany and Holland, Letters from, 336
Goerres—The Hero-Book of Iran, 449
Gourbillon's Travels to Mount Etna, 511
Graham, See *Rodney*.
Greco on Chess, translated, 218
Greenland, History of, 259

H

Hackett's Narrative of the Expedition to South America, 109
Hall's Travels in France, 105
Harold, a Tragedy, 100
Hazlitt's Lectures on the Literature of the Age of Elizabeth, 59
———'s Political Essays, 250
Hero-Book of Iran, 449
Highlands, Sketch of a Tour in, 390
History, French, chronological Review of, 534
———, See *Cranz*, *Coxe*, *Nougarède*.
Hoare's (Sir R. C.) Classical Tour through Italy and Sicily, 273
Hodgson's Sacred Leisure, Poems, 207
Hogg's Winter Evening Tales, 263
Huntingdon Peerage, 335
Hunt's Translation of Tasso's Amyntas, 17

I and J

Jamieson's (Mrs.) Popular Voyages and Travels in Europe, 448
Jamieson's Popular Voyages and Travels in Asia, Africa, and America, 448
Jephtha's

Digitized by Google

Jephtha's Sacrifice, a Poem, 435
Inedited Pieces of Voltaire, 539
Inquiry into interesting Subjects, 443
Institute, See *Memoirs*.
Involution, &c., Essay on, 408
John Bull, Fragment of the History of, 225
Johnson's Remarks on Lord John Russell's Life of Lord Russell, 217
Ireland, Walks through, 32
———, View of Society in, 39
Irish Academy, See *Academy*.
Irving's Sketch-Book of Geoffrey Crayon, 198
Italian Don Juan, 102
Italy and Sicily, Classical Tour through, 273
Julia Alpinula, and other Poems, 241

K

Knowles's Virginius, a Tragedy, 53

L

Lacon; many Things in few Words, 441
La Motte-Fouqué's Undine, a Romance, 184
———'s Sintram and his Companions, *ib.*
———, Madame de, Lodoiska and her Daughter, 461
Lavaysse's Statistical Description of Venezuela, &c., translated, 83
Lawson's Orient Harping, 97
Lectures on the Literature of the Age of Elizabeth, 59
Letter from an Englishman at St. Omer, 112
——— to the Author of Waverley, &c. 169
——— to Lord John Russell, 437
Letters from Germany and Holland, 336
——— from Mrs. Delany, 439
Lewis's Translation of Greco on Chess, 218
Life and Character, Essays and Sketches of, 369
———, Human, Progress of, 438
Littleton's Tributes to Truth, 111
Lodoiska and her Daughter, 461

M

Macculloch's Description of the Western Islands of Scotland, 43. 174
Man, on the Intellectual Powers of, 314
Marlborough, Duke of, Memoirs of, 337
Melish's Travels through the United States, 113. 375
Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences in France, for 1817 and 1818, *Article concluded*, 472
Memorabilia, 223
Milner's Italian Don Juan, 102
Milton's Doctrine of Divorce, &c., *new Edition*, 144
Mill's Inquiry into interesting Subjects, 443
Monarchical Projects, 528
Montenegro, Tour in, 528
Moscow, a Tragedy, 214

N

Narrative of a Voyage to the Spanish Main, 106
——— of an Expedition to South America, 109
Natural History, Art of collecting Objects of, 103
Nicholson's Essays on the Combinatorial Analysis, 408
———'s Rudiments of Algebra, *ib.*
———'s Essays on Involution and Evolution, *ib.*
Nougarède's History of the Roman Revolution, 495

O

Observations on the Automaton Chess-Player, 220
Observer, 544
One Lay of a Night Harper, 96
Orient Harping, 97

P

Patronage, a Poem, 213
Penal Jurisprudence, Observations on, 403
Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, for 1819, *Article concluded*, 286
———, Part I., for 1820, 392
Pigault-Lebrun, — The Observer, 544
Plants, Essay on the Distribution of, 316

Poems,

Digitized by Google

Poems, See *Senwood*, *Lawson*, *Wordsworth*, *Hodgson*, *Swan*, *Wiffen*, *Barton*, *Webb*, *Thackwell*, *Bennett*, *Shilton*.
Poetry of America, View of, 297
Pohlman's Chess rendered familiar, 219
Political Essays, 250
Poor, See *Bayly*, See *Salisbury*, See *Stanhope*.
Progress of Human Life, 438

R

Refert Gentis, a short Tract, 216
Retreat, a Tale, 103
Retribution, a Poem, 213
Review of French History, 534
Rhetoric, Flowers of, 221
Ricardo on Political Economy and Taxation, 416
Rising, Early, on the Duty of, 224
River Duddon, and other Poems, 132
Rodney and Graham—Reports on the State of South America, 83
Rome, History of the Revolution which overturned its Republic, 495
Romilly, Sir Samuel, his Speeches, and Memoir of him, 1
Roscoe's Observations on Penal Jurisprudence, 403
Royal Society, Philosophical Transactions of, for 1819, *Article concluded*, 286
——— ———, Transactions for 1820, Part I., 392
Russell, Lord John, Remarks on his Life of Lord Russell, 217
———, ———, Letter to, 437

S

Sacred Leisure, Poems, 207
Saint Omer, Letter from an Englishman at, 112
Salisbury on employing the Poor, 323
Savage's Memorabilia, 223
Scoresby's Account of the Arctic Regions, 225. 361
Scotland, Western Isles of, described, 43. 174
———, Geological Essay on, 493
Senwood, — One Lay of a Night Harper, 96
Seybert's Statistical Annals of the United States of America, 113. 375
Sharp's Flowers of Rhetoric, 221
Shilton's Jephtha's Sacrifice, a Poem, 435
Sintram and his Companions, 184
Sir Francis Darrell, a Novel, 436
Sketch-Book of Geoffry Crayon, 198
Sketch of a Tour in the Highlands, 390
Soane's Translation of Undine, a Romance, 184
Society, Royal, Philosophical Transactions of, for 1819, *Article concluded*, 286
———, ———, Transactions for 1820, Part I., 392
Sommieres, See *Vialla*.
Sonnets, See *Webb*.
Spanish Main, Voyage to, 106
Speeches of Sir Samuel Romilly, and Memoir of him, 1
Stanhope, Earl, his Speech, 325
Stanhope's Crusaders, a Romance, 437
Substance of Earl Stanhope's Speech, May 16., 325
Swan's Retribution, a Poem, 213
Swift's Woman's Will, a Drama, 434

T

Tasso's Amyntas, translated, 17
Taxidermy; Art of collecting Objects of Natural History, 103
Thackwell's Miscellaneous Poems, 331
Thomson's Observations on English Etymology, 2d Edition, 445
Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, Vol. XII. and Vol. XIII. Part I., 158
———, Philosophical, of the Royal Society of London, for 1819, *Article concluded*, 286
———, ———, for 1820, Part I., 392
Traveller's Fire-side, 217
Travels, See *Hall*, *Hoare*, *Jamieson*, *Gourbillon*, *Vialla*.
Tributes to Truth, 111
Trotter's Walks through Ireland, 32
Tweddell's Aguilhar, a Tragedy, 212

U and V

Venezuela, Description of, 83
Vialla's Tour in Montenegro, 528
Virginius, a Tragedy, 53
Undine, a Romance, 184
United States, See *America*, *North*.
Voltaire's inedited Pieces, 539
Voyages, See *Brackenridge*, See *Jamieson*.

Walks

Digitized by Google

W

Walks through Ireland, 32
Walsh's Appeal respecting America, 297
Warden's Statistical Account of the United States, 113. 375
Waring's Traveller's Fire-side, 217
Waverley, Letter to the Author of, 169
Webb's Sonnets, 330
Western Islands, See *Macculloch*.
What have we got? 211
Wiffen's Julia Alpinula, and other Poems, 241
Winch's Essay on the Distribution of Plants, 316
Winter Evening Tales, 263
Winter-Nights, 352
Woman's Will, a Drama, 434
Wordsworth's River Duddon, and other Poems, 132
Workington Agricultural Society, Report to, 333

Z

Zayda, a Spanish Tale, 215
Ζητηματα Διανοητικα: View of the Intellectual Powers of Man, 314
Zoophilos, on the Treatment of Inferior Animals, 223

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ERRATA in Vol. XCIII.

Page 196. l. 10. from bottom, dele the comma after '*add.*'
272. l. 16. dele '*one.*'
445. l. 10. insert a turned comma before *By.*

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THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1820.

ART. I. *The Speeches of Sir Samuel Romilly*, in the House of Commons. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 6s. Boards. Ridgway. 1820.

THE premature death of the virtuous patriot and enlightened lawyer, whose parliamentary speeches are collected in these volumes, communicated a sensation which has scarcely ceased to vibrate: for it seemed that a sudden visitation had deprived our common country of one of its most distinguished ornaments, at a time when she could ill sustain the privation. Sir Samuel Romilly had, indeed, such endearing titles to general veneration and to private esteem, that his loss was neither too acutely felt nor too seriously deplored. It is the heaviest infliction which can befall a nation when a public man, born for its good, or rather for that of the species to which he belongs, is torn from its embraces. The English name was elevated with that of an intrepid but guileless patriot; of a politician who pursued the noblest ends by the noblest means; of a jurist who upheld the venerable maxims of constitutional law; and of a private citizen who, in the rapid and unchecked career of prosperous fortune, exhibited the austere but chaste and unassuming virtues which are for the most part nursed and cradled in the hard lap of adversity.

Yet out of such deprivations not unfrequently much incidental good arises. If we see that the succession is cut off, that no kindred talent or equal virtue is ready to occupy the place of that which has left us, that humanity has lost its indefatigable friend and the nation's cause its most unwearied patron, and that none remain to embody "their country's weal" in their acts and efforts, still the principle is impassive and immortal, and the wisdom of the great and eminent does not pass away. Our reverence, therefore, for public principle is increased: we pay to it exclusively the homage which till lately we divided with the individual; and we thus learn to rely more on the sacred maxims which their genius elucidated or their lives established, than on those whom, while they lived we followed as our leaders. Their images, indeed, hold an honoured place among our household busts, and we revere

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the consecrated recollections inspired by the Curii or Decii of our country: but we remember that they are gone; and high and indispensable duties call us from the fruitless lamentation of their loss to the active imitation of their virtues.

"*Abstinentiam atque integritatem tanti viri referre injuria fuerit virtutum,*" says Tacitus of his father-in-law. It might be assumed *à priori*, without any reference to the private life of Romilly, from the mere contemplation of the unbending rectitude and the dignified but tempered austerity of his political life, that in the private relations he was strictly just and punctiliously honest. These are axioms which will admit of no question. The connection, however, between those high public qualities and the charms that play around the social circle is not invariable: but in Sir Samuel Romilly they existed in the closest union. All the virtues of the uncorrupt statesman were blended with the mildest and softest of our affections; — of those which scatter delight and cheerfulness around them, and take back what they give in the tranquil satisfaction of rendering others as happy as ourselves. Those who knew him in his retired intercourse will not soon forget the easy and cheerful flow of his ordinary converse, when he reposed from the task of virtue and the toils of benevolence.

If any trait in such a life were yet wanting to endear it to our hearts, it would be found in that exquisite sensibility which pervaded and at last bore down a frame too finely constructed for its more impassioned impulses. We do not now speak of the fatal effect of that sensibility: but the severest thinker will respect it; for it belongs to that class of our emotions which, rightly tempered, bring with them the sweetest consolations, and reflect, as they flow in a calm and unruffled current, the purest images of tranquillity and peace: but which, when they swell to a torrent, with a torrent's force destroy every nerve and faculty, and leave the mind of man a dark and desolate chaos. Of the event itself, the *immediate* cause was physical disease, and the predisposing cause was of a moral origin. It was an attachment too highly cherished to a sublunary good; a friendship sublimated into passion for a beloved person; not united to it only by the tendrils which the domestic affections throw around our hearts, but growing into the very trunk of existence, and deriving from the same root its nurture and vitality. Such was the strength of this impulse, that the clearest of intellects became by degrees blind to the uncertain tenure of God's gifts to man, and unmindful that he who inflicted the smart had provided the cure. In the phrenzy of grief, the promises of religion were obscured to him, and ——. We willingly drop a veil over the

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the last infirmity of a noble mind, and, with a chastening and useful lesson of the littleness of our nature even in its brightest examples, retire from the afflicting topic.

It is natural to over-rate the genius of men who have done well in their generation. Gratitude for the disinterested services of those who have outstripped their contemporaries, in the race of virtue, will not permit us calmly to calculate the size and dimensions of minds exercised in the beneficent task of ameliorating the moral condition, or relieving the physical sufferings of their fellow-creatures. It is our especial duty, however, to make correct estimates, where our affections are naturally biassed by the amiable illusions which heighten every lineament, and embellish every feature, of a beloved character. In so doing, whatever is subtracted from mental capacity is gained to moral excellence.—Fertile, exact, acute; powers of which the strength was daily augmented by exercise: a mind fresh and vigorous, unclouded and comprehensive; an enthusiasm which occasionally raised his faculties to considerable elevation: — these are some of the tints with which we should sketch the intellectual portrait of Sir Samuel Romilly. His eloquence, never tame and subdued, was seldom fervid or impetuous: but it was sufficient at all times to give impressive utterance to the indignant and tortured feelings of a patriot, who mourned the corruption of his age. It was not unfrequently mixed, also, with a sarcastic bitterness that was felt more than it was acknowleged, and with a generous scorn of all that was mean or debased which seemed to appal his adversaries. In parliament, no speaker was heard with more profound attention. He never wandered from the subject with which his whole mind was filled, into those desultory observations by which the most expert and skilful of our public orators not unfrequently bewilder themselves and their audience: but he adhered to the argument, through a series of inductions not scholastic or artificial, but simple, and the best fitted for the mixed capacities of a large assembly. That which peculiarly enchained his hearers to his discourse was the entire absence of the trick and artifice of ordinary declaimers, and the earnestness approaching to solemnity by which his delivery was marked. He belonged, however, to an order below that of Burke or Fox. He was disciplined as an orator in that profession which according to the former of these illustrious statesmen, "does more to sharpen and invigorate the mind than all the others put together;" and hence, though acute and subtle, he was rather strong than vehement, more rapid than impetuous. The boundless reach of thought, the untired variety of allusion-

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the magic sovereignty over language, the art of softening his discourse by splendid effusions of sentiment or grave and lofty maxims of wisdom, the mighty power which alternately commands our laughter and our tears; — in short, that which peculiarly constituted Burke's character and excellence in oratory; — nothing of this appeared in the speeches of Sir Samuel Romilly. Nor was he carried away by the almost breathless celerity, the copious and overwhelming torrent of argument and eloquence, that belonged to Fox. Yet where is the man that heard him when he was stating a case of wrong and oppression, who did not say within himself, "If I am persecuted and oppressed, may my wrongs be thus set forth, my rights thus urged?" On such occasions, it would be pardonable to exclaim in the beautiful language of the chorus in Samson Agonistes,

> "Oh how comely it is, and how reviving
> To the spirits of just men long oppressed!
> When God into the hands of their deliverer
> Puts invincible might," &c. &c.

There is, however, a peculiarly bright feature in the public character of Sir Samuel Romilly, that almost throws into shade the other efforts of a life dedicated to active benevolence: — we mean his unwearied exertions to mitigate the penal code of the country. Never was a more glorious field opened for the eloquence of the patriot, for the acute and discriminating talents of the lawyer, or for the humanity and sympathies of the private citizen. The system to be reformed was twice cursed; in the dreadful penalties which it inflicted, and in the atrocious crimes which it generated. By the law as it then stood, offences widely different were indiscriminately visited with death; and the acts of 10 and 11 William III., 12 Anne, and 24 George II., made a private theft in a shop to the value of five shillings, or in a dwelling-house, or on board a vessel in a navigable river, to the amount of forty shillings, capital felonies. Although this unsparing rigour was checked by the humanity of the age, and the enactment was seldom carried into effect, such a variance between the letter and the administration of the law constituted in itself an evil of considerable magnitude. It erected a tribunal in the bosoms of mild and lenient judges, which virtually condemned and annulled the statutes: it introduced uncertainty into penal jurisprudence: the association between guilt and penalty was disunited; and the law was deprived of half its efficacy. The cheap estimate of life, moreover, when sanguinary punishments are too frequently inflicted, hardens the minds of those whom

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whom it ought to impress with terror; and when they are remitted, the impunity encourages the perpetration of offences. Certainty, which is of the very essence of penal regulation, is wanting; and crime becomes a calculation of chances.—These are principles which should be for ever present to legislators; and there are others which cannot be too often reiterated. Of all criminal justice, the object is example; and the great problem, to which the soul and faculties of the lawgiver should be directed, is how to produce the strongest effect by the fewest examples. This irresistible proposition has been thus compendiously stated by Cicero: "*Ut metus ad omnes, pœna ad paucos perveniat.*" All punishment is an evil, both with respect to the state which inflicts and to the offender who suffers. Crime, also, being subversive of the rights and property of individuals which the state is bound to protect, is an evil. Yet the two do not act with opposite forces on each other, as in mechanics. "If the crimes increase, increase the punishments reciprocally," would be the maxim of a bungling legislator: but, when punishments are pushed beyond a certain point, they cease to operate; that is, the excess is useless, and obstructs rather than assists the course of justice. The result is that a quantity of vice remains unpunished, and a portion of evil is created that is unprofitable. Since the extirpation of crime is the dream of enthusiasm, which a practical and sober view of things will not permit us to cherish, all that can be required of human legislation is to abate the mischief which it is incompetent to subdue; and this to be effected with the lowest possible expenditure of the one evil which is employed to counteract the other.

It is difficult to imagine by what process of reasoning those who opposed the revision of the penal code could justify, to use the expression of Lord Bacon, "this froward retention of custom." We do not undervalue the rational fear of innovation, which may be a salutary and protecting sentiment, a watchful sentinel to keep the mind free from licentious and extravagant visions. Every alteration, therefore, should be carefully inspected: but, when it has undergone its due *quarantine*, and comes with its regular certificate of health, the rigorous exclusion of change would renounce the unspeakable blessings of reformation. Be it remembered, however, that the most sanguinary parts of our criminal code have themselves been innovations; and that they have been made from time to time, in the language of the great historian of Henry VII., "on the spur of an occasion, not with a provident circumspection for the future." They have been sudden fits of legislation, rude and clumsy remedies for unforeseen

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cases. A peculiar species of depredation grows prevalent. What is the remedy? *Death.* An unforeseen mischief is perpetrated. How is it to be put down? Immediately, perhaps, without the formal compliment of a debate, it becomes a capital felony. Thus offences, as widely differing from each other as imagination can conceive, are classed in the same category. When murder is punished with death, the voice of nature and the voice of reason concur in the sentence: but, when the same dreadful penalty is denounced against delinquencies, some of which are rather offences against positive and artificial than against natural law, — such as wandering about the realm without a pass if soldiers or mariners, — the enormous disproportion between the crime and the punishment turns the tide of human feeling towards the offender. Respect for the law is then lost in sympathy for the transgressor; and the affrighted conscience of judges and jurors flies to that discretion which evades the capital infliction by a virtual repeal of the statute. Thus we find that, in a period of seven years, from 1802 to 1809 inclusive, out of 508 capital convicts in London and Middlesex, only 67 suffered death. The relative proportion of acquittals to commitments, principally attributable to the reluctance of prosecuting which is occasioned by the severity of the penal code, is still more striking. *

Those persons, however, who resisted the proposed improvement, said, and still say, "You see how humanely this discretion is exercised; how completely it rectifies the inequality and mitigates the cruelty of the law. What would you have more?" The answer is obvious. We require that this discretion, which is now variable and uncertain, should become definite and positive. Law ought to be that which justice has been beautifully defined to be, "beneficence operating by rule." Let that which now depends on the judge or the jury, who may happen to try the case, be dependent on them no longer. Let that which is allowed to be necessary be declared to be law. There will then be no need of conscientious perjury; of humane violations of law; of benevolent evasions of justice.

We have endeavoured to state, in as compressed a form as we found possible, our sentiments on a subject which occupied so much of the time and solicitude of Sir Samuel Romilly. The project of correcting the anomalies and softening the inhumanity of our criminal law, even in its failure, would have ennobled the highest genius, and obtained respect for

* Report of the Committee of the House of Commons. 1818.

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the meanest understanding. The success of the measures proposed by this humane statesman was indeed partial; for, of the various bills which he introduced to repeal our most sanguinary statutes, two * only passed into laws during his life; but still his attempt forms the noblest monument of his fame, and is that immortal inheritance, the κτημα ες αιει, which will flourish in unfading verdure round his tomb. He did much in his day: yet his noblest efforts in the cause of humanity are outstripped by the incalculable blessings which he has bequeathed to his country, in his labours to open the eyes and understandings of mankind to the complicated mischiefs of impolitic and barbarous enactments. Since his death, the work has made still farther progress: but, by whatever talent or industry it may be matured, the authority of his name and the influence of his virtues imparted to it the impulse which first moved it, and which continued even after his death to urge it onwards.

An imperfect but interesting memoir of Sir Samuel Romilly is prefixed to these volumes, and is interspersed with extracts from his private letters. We could have wished, however, for more of such correspondence, which is by far the most interesting part of biography; shewing the mind in its undress, and introducing us as it were to the inmost chambers of the heart. In the present instance, our avidity for this gratification is sharpened by the few specimens with which we have been favoured; parts of which we shall presently insert as highly interesting pictures of the habits, feelings, and character of the writer.

Sir Samuel Romilly was descended from a French Protestant family, whom the revocation of the edict of Nantes had compelled to seek refuge in England. He was remarkable at an early age for vivacity of temper, but subject also to strong nervous depressions, which were perhaps never wholly subdued. At the age of fourteen, he had the occasional assistance of a private tutor in classical learning; his education till that time having been trusted to an inferior day-school in his father's neighbourhood. The Rev. John Roget, who married his amiable and beloved sister, soon discerned and appreciated his powers; and under that gentleman's guidance, but by his own unwearied industry, he laid the foundation of his subsequent greatness. In consequence of an early and decided

* An act abolishing the punishment of death for stealing from bleaching-grounds; and an act repealing the barbarous statute of Elizabeth to prevent soldiers and mariners from wandering without a pass.

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predilection for the bar, he became in 1778 a member of Gray's Inn; where he pursued his labours with ardour and perseverance, till, in 1780, in consequence of the fatigue which he sustained as a private in the Gray's Inn association during the riots, he was obliged to relinquish his severer studies.

The following are extracts from letters which he addressed about this time to Mr. and Mrs. Roget, then residing in Swisserland:

' " You ask me if the circle of my acquaintance is as small as ever? Yes — to the full, — less, I should rather say. All the few friends I had here two years ago, are now scattered in different parts of the earth. New acquaintance I have none. How indeed should I make them, since I am still as backward to introduce myself into company as ever? — One acquaintance, it is true, I have made since you were in England, — a friend, I ought to say, if to take the greatest interest in my concerns and to load me with unaffected civilities, can give a claim to that title. I mean Mr. Spranger, a name, I believe, perfectly new to you. He is a counsellor, under whom I have studied almost ever since you quitted England. Mrs. Spranger is one of the most amiable women I know, not very young indeed, for she has four children, but still handsome and possessing the most engaging manners. At their house, where I frequently dine or sup, though less often than I am pressed to do, I meet a good deal of company, which, consisting mostly of men of sense and education, is very agreeable. — But the most engaging society, — that, my dear sister, of your amiable sex, I seldom enjoy, for I am hardly ever of their card parties, — besides that it is not at a whist table that your sex appears in its native charms.

' " With so small an acquaintance, you will easily conceive that I seek for amusement in my studies, and there I am never disappointed in what I seek. — My rooms are exceedingly lively, and capable of themselves to secure me from indulging in melancholy; so that you may discard those apprehensions which I persuade myself that I discover under your obliging inquiries. In the depth of winter, the moment the sun peeps out, I am in the country. A cold country indeed it is; for having only one row of houses between me and Highgate and Hampstead, a north wind, sharp as your piercing *bize*, blows full against my chambers. Fortunately I am sheltered from the north-east. What renders my chambers very comfortable is a tolerable collection of books, which, I confess, somewhat extravagantly I have lately purchased." '

In a subsequent letter to Mr. Roget, he says;

' " No domestic occurrence has happened in our family worth communicating to you, though we have reason to hope that one much to be desired is at hand. You know I mean that by which we shall be enabled to call our dear Jenny, whom we have long loved as a sister, by that tender name. How happy shall we be when

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when the joyful time arrives of our being all assembled together — all to whom the endearing names of brother and sister belong. I already represent to myself our little societies meeting at each other's houses, and enjoying in each other's company and conversation those pleasures of which we have been so long debarred."'

The ensuing passage in another letter to the same gentleman gives an interesting picture of his inclinations and occupations; and it is moreover valuable as displaying the early direction of his mind to the investigation and amendment of the penal law.

' " When Machiavel says, that men are by nature hypocrites and cowards, ungrateful and rapacious, this may possibly be an exact copy of the manners of Italy, in an age just emerging from barbarism; but for a representation of the human species, how false and preposterous is it! — Princes, he says, are not to be bound by promises and oaths, for all men are perfidious; and were monarchs alone observant of their faith, they would find themselves the dupes of their own ridiculous scruples! He is the first writer, perhaps, who, regarding mankind with the eyes of a sullen misanthropy, has expressed no indignation at what he saw, and seemed well contented that things should remain as they were. Seeing men in the odious light in which he represents them, Machiavel could not but have conceived a deadly hatred against them; and if so, his book seems to me no longer a prodigy; for in this Institute of a Tyrant he has, consistently with that hatred, set himself to arm with force and with every destructive art the most cruel scourge of mankind.

' " The author of the Anti-machiavel seems to have formed his opinion of the human heart from the manners of France, as much as Machiavel did from those of Italy. Machiavel says, that no oppression of a prince will so soon draw on him the hatred of his subjects, as to rob them of their wives. The Anti-machiavelian, falling into the opposite extreme, says, that such gallantry, using the fashionable phrase of the language he writes in, never renders a prince odious. The story of Lucretia, indeed, stands a little in his way; but he dexterously removes that obstacle, by supposing the whole story a romance — a convenient mode of getting rid of the great examples of ancient virtue, when they obstruct a modern system, or remain a reproach to modern depravity. — There is, indeed, another method which surpasses even this; it is to admit the action, but to deny that it was done from any virtuous motive." —

' " Have you ever heard of a book published here some time since by a Mr. Howard on the State of the Prisons in England and several other Countries? You may conjecture from the subject, that it is not a book of great literary merit; but it has a merit infinitely superior; it is one of those works which have been rare in all ages of the world, — being written with a view only to the good of mankind. The author was some time ago a sheriff in the country; in the execution of which office numerous instances of abuses

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abuses practised in prisons came under his observation. Shocked with what he saw, he began to inquire whether the prisons in the adjacent counties were on a better footing; and finding every where the same injustice prevail, he resolved, though a private individual, to attempt a reform of abuses which had become as general as they were shocking to humanity. Accordingly he made a visit to every prison and house of correction in England with invincible perseverance and courage: for some of the prisons were so infected with diseases and putrid air, that he was obliged to hold a cloth steeped in vinegar to his nostrils during the whole time he remained in them, and to change his clothes the moment he returned. After having devoted so much time to this painful employment here, he set out on a tour through a great part of Holland, Germany, and Switzerland, to visit their prisons. What a singular journey! — not to admire the wonders of art and nature, — not to visit courts, and ape their manners, — but to compare the misery of men in different countries, and to study the arts of mitigating the torment of mankind! What a contrast might be drawn between the painful labour of this man, and the ostentatious sensibility which turns aside from scenes of misery, and with the mockery of a few barren tears, leaves it to seek comfort in its own distresses!" '

In 1781 Mr. Romilly visited Swisserland, the borders of Italy, and the principal places in France. One of his letters of this period thus describes the French character; and, coming from such an observer, the delineation will not be undervalued:

' " In the little I have seen of the French I have found them *to be much less gay than they are commonly said to be.* They are merry and serious by starts, but they are strangers to cheerfulness, and still more to serenity of temper. When Mr. De Luc was at Paris, he often observed to a gentleman whom I am acquainted with, as they walked out on Sunday evenings, that he never saw in England that mirth and gaiety which appeared on the countenances of the French. The observation has been frequently made before, but by men of less sense than Mr. De Luc; and from thence one is to conclude that the French are a happier nation than the English, and consequently that a despotic government is preferable to a free one. I greatly doubt the happiness of the French; but if they are happy they are more to be pitied than if they had been discontented, because, in their situation, it is not possible they can be happy, till their souls are debased to a level with their condition. Slaves must be insensible indeed to the misery and ignominy of their state, when they can hug the chains that dishonour them, and lick the feet by which they are trampled on. Such men can never taste of real happiness; to them all its genuine sources are dried up. It is ever the policy of a tyrant to enervate the minds of his subjects, and to give them a fondness for false grandeur and empty pleasures. When he has once wrought this change in their dispositions, he may at an easy price glut

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glut them with all that they are greedy after. They will never feel the want of pleasures which they no longer have souls to enjoy. So it was in the worst days of the Roman empire; its tyrants fed a populace, whom they had rendered stupid and sensual, with offals and gaudy shows, — It is not more surprising, that a people ignorant of liberty are contented with servitude, than that a man blind from his birth laments not the want of the most delightful of the senses. I have never seen a troop of children who appeared more cheerful and contented than the deaf and dumb scholars of the Abbé de l'Epée; but ought we from thence to conclude that they are happier than we are, and that Providence, in giving us our senses complete, has bestowed on us a superfluous, if not a pernicious gift?

' " At Versailles I assisted at the mass. The service was very short, though it was on a Sunday; for kings are so highly respected in France, that even religion appoints for them less tedious ceremonies than what it enjoins the people to observe. The moment his Majesty appeared, the drums beat and shook the temple, as if they had been to announce the approach of a conqueror. During the whole time of saying mass, the choristers sung, sometimes in chorus, sometimes in single parts. In the front seats of the galleries were ranged the ladies of the court, glowing with rouge and gorgeously apparelled, to enjoy and form a part of the showy spectacle. The King laughed and spied at the ladies. Every eye was fixed on the personages of the court, — every ear was attentive to the notes of the singers, while the priest, who in the mean time went on with the exercise of his office, was unheeded by all. Even when the Host was lifted up, none observed it; and if the people knelt, it was because they were admonished by the ringing of the bell; and even in that attitude all were endeavouring to get a glimpse of the King. — How can a King of France ever be brought to regard his subjects as his equals, when even before the throne of Heaven he maintains so high a superiority over all around him? What an idea must he not conceive of his own importance when he thus sees his God less honoured than himself!" '

During his stay at Paris, he was introduced among other men of letters to D'Alembert and Diderot, but remained uninfected with the irreligion of those philosophers. It seems that Diderot took some pains to plant those pestilent opinions in his mind: but such efforts were ineffectual, and excited no other sentiments than those of surprize and disgust. This circumstance has given us unmixed satisfaction. We rejoice to find that the persevering friend of humanity was not influenced by a person, whose writings assail every mode of religion and the foundation of every virtue, to depart from his fidelity to the religious and moral principles of his youth. On the other hand, we do not contemplate without indignation the perverted zeal of him who employed a capacity, which

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which might have been usefully exerted for the noblest purposes, in a sullen labour, in which, if he had succeeded, he himself must have acknowleged that nothing could be more fatal to mankind than his success.

Mr. Romilly was not an unobservant spectator of political events; and his letters contain almost the history of the American war, with the substance of the arguments employed on both sides in the debates of Parliament, (which he was in the constant habit of attending,) and his own remarks on the peculiar style, talents, and characters of the various speakers. We confess that we lament the frugality with which the editor * has doled out these letters. They must have been useful and interesting as portraitures drawn from the life, and by the hand of no ordinary artist, of the characters who acted in the great theatre of affairs during that momentous period.

In one of these letters, written in 1782, Mr. R. says, "William Pitt is this day to move for a reform in the representation of the people, — a matter most important and desirable, but which will have formidable enemies to combat in the dread with which narrow minds regard all innovations, however salutary." He speaks in animated terms of the talents displayed by the mover: but, although an immense crowd was attracted by the fame of the rising orator to the gallery of the house, he observes that it was the eloquence of Mr. Pitt, and not the subject, which excited the public curiosity; and that many of his hearers made the same reflection which the usurer in the *Diable Boiteux* applied to the preacher, "*Il a bien fait son metier; allons faire le notre.*" To the coalition of Mr. Fox and Lord North, he alludes in several of his letters in terms of bitter disappointment.

On the 2d of June, 1783, Mr. Romilly was called to the bar; and his feelings on that occasion are thus described in his letters. "The nearer I approach the term which I have often wished for, the more I dread it. * * * * * Could I but realize the partial hopes of my friends, there would be no doubt of my success almost beyond my wishes; but in myself I have a much less indulgent censor, and in this perhaps alone I cannot suffer their judgment to have equal weight with my own. I have taught myself a very useful lesson of practical philosophy, which is, not to suffer my happiness to depend upon my success. Should my wishes be gratified, I promise to employ all the talents, and all the authority I may acquire, for the public good. Should I fail, I console myself with

* The *Advertisement* is signed *William Peter.*

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thinking that the humblest situation of life has its duties, which one must receive a satisfaction in discharging; and that at least my conscience will bear me the pleasing testimony of having intended well."

Such was the diffidence and such the self-severity of this extraordinary man. He began and continued his career with the strictest diligence, and nothing diverted him from his pursuit: but he rose slowly, and for five years was almost without business; and it was not till 1791 that his practice was considerable. In the house of the late Marquis of Lansdown, he became first acquainted with HER who was destined to contribute so largely to his happiness, and finally to cut short his existence. She was the daughter of a Mr. Garbett, and was married to Mr. R. early in 1798. In 1800, his professional reputation being very high and his business very considerable, he was created a King's counsel; and in 1806, when Mr. Fox came into office, he was made Solicitor-General, was immediately knighted, and shortly afterward returned to Parliament. The ability with which he discharged the arduous duty of one of the managers of the impeachment of Lord Melville, and the strength, order, and clearness with which he summed up the evidence against that noble delinquent, are well remembered.

Although he mixed very seldom in the debates, occasions did occur on which his eloquence and zeal were ardently exerted. He took his share in the discussions relative to the abolition of the slave-trade: but, when that glorious work was accomplished, the political party with whom he was connected retired from office, and the Parliament was suddenly dissolved. Being again seated, in 1808 he commenced those immortal labours for the mitigation of the penal code, concerning which we have already spoken in the former part of this article: but our limits now remind us that we cannot enumerate the various efforts of Sir Samuel Romilly in Parliament, to ameliorate the general happiness of his country and of mankind. The local jurisprudence of England engaged his most earnest thoughts; he attempted to correct a strange anomaly, productive of the most serious injustice in the law of debtor and creditor, by rendering freehold estates subject to the payment of simple contract debts; and he strenuously supported, in common with the wisest and best men, that improvement in our law which, by making property answerable for civil debts, took away from the merciless and exasperated creditor the inhuman right of incarcerating the victim of his avarice or his revenge.

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On the dissolution of Parliament in 1818, the requisitions of a large proportion of the electors of Westminster brought Sir Samuel forwards as one of the candidates for that city, and after a vehement contest he was elected by a large majority. He might be said to have now arrived at the consummation of earthly felicity: — his public worth was rewarded by the most unequivocal testimonies of public approbation: — he had long reached the summit of his profession; — and the toils of that profession were soothed by conjugal felicity approximating nearly to that which is pictured in romance, — by ardent friendships, veneration for his character, and affectionate esteem for his virtues. Only a few months before the event happened which closed this happy scene, the following conversation occurred between him and a gentleman who was fortunate enough to be numbered among his friends:

'They were walking together,' says his biographer, 'in the neighbourhood of Hampstead, at the close of a delightful day in that heavenly summer. Sir Samuel Romilly said, "How I feel the tranquillity of these lovely evenings! — What a contrast is it with our busy, turbulent pursuits!" — His companion answered, "We ought always to be cautious of these feelings produced by contrast. — You may perhaps have felt it, as I have, when coming from the house of a dying or deceased friend, you walk into the street of a great city, and feel the total indifference of the passengers to all that is near and dear to you." — He replied, "It has been my good fortune never to know domestic affliction; but I dare say, it must be so."'

The circumstances attending his dissolution are too recent to require recapitulation. He died on the 2d of November, 1818, four days after his wife, and was interred in the same grave with her, at Knill in Herefordshire. United in life, in death they were not divided.

'In person, he was tall and justly proportioned, with a countenance regular and pleasing, but tinged with deep shades of thought, and susceptible of the greatest or tenderest emotions. His manners were distinguished by singular modesty, unaffected simplicity, and the kindest attention and regard to the wishes and feelings of others. His habits were temperate, studious, and domestic. No man ever indulged less in those pursuits which the world calls pleasure. He rose regularly at six o'clock, and was occupied during the greater part of the day, and frequently to a late hour at night, either in study or laborious attendance to his professional and parliamentary duties. What little intervals of leisure could be snatched from his toils, he anxiously devoted to domestic intercourse and enjoyments. — Moderate in his own expences, he was generous, without ostentation, to the wants of others, and the exquisite sensibility of his nature was never more strikingly

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strikingly displayed than in the fervent zeal, with which his professional knowledge was always ready to be exerted for the destitute and oppressed, — for those who might seem, in their poverty, to have been left without a friend. — Even to the last, when sinking under the weight of domestic affliction, when anticipating, as its possible result, a wretched life of mental malady and darkness, he was still intent on the welfare and happiness of those around him. The religion of Sir Samuel Romilly was like his life, pure, fervent, and enlightened. Unclouded by superstition or intolerance, it shone forth in pious gratitude to God, and in charity to all mankind.'

No man was ever more honestly bewailed. The tears of social affection were mingled with the general sorrows that wept for the patriot, the upright lawyer, and the friend of mankind, who felt their distresses and dedicated his life to soothe and alleviate them. We scarcely remember a public or a private calamity so universally deplored: it was a species of anguish that was felt by almost all classes of the community; and it seemed as if the vehement grief attributed by the poet to Cornelia, and her lamentations over Pompey, and which Lord Clarendon has applied to the death of the noble and accomplished Falkland, was not hyperbolical:

"*Turpe mori post te solo non posse dolore.*" (Lucan. ix. 108.)

The speeches collected in this volume are derived from the ordinary records of the day. We believe that few, if any of them, received their last corrections from the hand of Sir Samuel Romilly himself, with the exception of his speech on the criminal law in 1810; and they are, therefore, for the most part, imperfect specimens of his impassioned and earnest though smooth and flowing eloquence. We subjoin the substance of his reply to those who opposed the alterations which he recommended in the penal jurisprudence of the country on that occasion; and, as far as our own personal recollection goes, the passage appears to be a tolerably faithful specimen of his style and diction.

' " As the motion which I have had the honour to submit to the consideration of the House has not met with any opposition, I should not avail myself of the privilege, to which I am, by courtesy, entitled, of rising to reply, was I not anxious to protect myself from the misrepresentation of my sentiments by my hon. friend near me (Mr. Windham), and by an hon. gentleman upon the opposite side of the House (the Solicitor-General), who have thought proper to state that I have attacked the celebrated work of Dr. Paley; that I have not been too respectful to the Judges; and who have expressed their alarm that the measures now proposed to the Legislature are part of a plan to overturn the criminal law of the country.

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"In discharge of my duty as a member of this House, I certainly shall never be deterred from freely investigating any opinions which I conceive to be injurious, although those opinions may be sanctioned by the practice of centuries, or supported by the most venerable authorities. From such obedient unanimity, — from such attempts to destroy all free-spoken truth, I must dissent: but how the hon. gentleman can imagine that it was my intention to undervalue Dr. Paley, or that my words have expressed any such intention, it is extremely difficult for me, when I consider the enlightened mind of him who has made this accusation, to discover. I am sure it will be in the recollection of the whole House that I anxiously endeavoured to express the respect which I unfeignedly feel for Dr. Paley; and if my real praise is to have as much value as my supposed censure, I am sure it will not be forgotten, that I was not more sparing than my hon. friend in such praise of Dr. Paley as it is in my power to bestow. I am not so unmindful of the obligations which society owes to the labours of a life devoted, as Dr. Paley's was, to the duties of his calling, and to the advancement of knowledge, as hastily to attack any position which he has maintained. But I am too well aware of the infirmities of our nature to suppose, that such extensive speculations can be free from all mistake: and whatever may be the imagination of the hon. gentleman, if he should really conceive, that, when attempting to detect unavoidable errors, I am injuring the reputation of an author, whose first wish must have been the advancement of truth, I shall content myself with the conviction, that I cannot better manifest my grateful respect for his memory than by endeavouring to prevent any error from being hallowed by his name. My hon. friend must not be supposed to be the only admirer of Dr. Paley: I unite in his praise, and I join also in the entreaty made by my hon. friend, that, before the discussion of these Bills, every gentleman who is interested in the investigation will read the remarks upon Criminal Law made by this so justly celebrated divine.

"To the next charge I should be totally silent, were I to consider only the probable effect of such an accusation upon the minds of the learned Judges themselves, to whom I am supposed to have been wanting in respect. They will not be misled by such imputations; imputations of which, from the consciousness of their own virtuous motives, they will have no suspicion; and on which, from their habits of examining evidence before they assent, they will not place any reliance — they would not condemn a stranger upon such a statement. I am proud to say that I have the happiness to be honoured with the friendship of some of the learned Judges; and I am sure they are all too well acquainted with me to imagine that I could for a moment be forgetful of the obligations which we all feel for the faithful discharge of their arduous duties, and for the pure administration of justice for which this country is so eminently distinguished. It is not to remove any impression from their minds that I think it necessary to notice the extraordinary insinuations of my hon. friend: but I should wish

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wish my hon. friend himself to know, that it is not disrespectful to suppose, that unanimity of opinion, upon the most intricate speculations into the motives of human action, is not to be expected from any Judges, however enlightened, and however virtuous, until they are wholly free from all the failings of man's nature.

'"Sir, it would be a waste of your time to reason upon the supposition of my hon. friend, that an alteration of the law for a particular species of larceny can be intended to overturn the criminal law of England. It is a common, and may be a convenient mode of proceeding, to prevent the progress of improvement, by endeavouring to excite the odium with which all attempts to reform are attended. Upon such expedients it is scarcely necessary for me to say, that I have calculated. If I had consulted only my own immediate interests, my time might have been more profitably employed in the profession in which I am engaged. If I had listened to the dictates of prudence, — if I had been alarmed by such prejudices, I could easily have discovered that the hope to amend the law is not the disposition most favourable for preferment. I am not unacquainted with the best road to Attorney-Generalships and Chancellorships: but in that path which my sense of duty dictates to be right I shall proceed; and from this no misunderstanding, — no misrepresentation shall deter me."'

On the whole, we think that England has produced few characters, even in the proudest days of her story, better fitted for shining and impressive examples than Sir Samuel Romilly. If we wish to educate a youth for the bar, with that lofty sense of moral rectitude, and that manly independence of soul, which will lift him far above the sordid temptations and paltry intrigues of his profession; if we are anxious to train him to an ardent but well-regulated zeal in the cause of freedom, and an habitual hatred for every kind of oppression or cruelty; if we desire to impress on his thoughts the sure recompences of assiduity and diligence, and the solid satisfactions of integrity and virtue; — in short, if we hope to make him a man that will be at once the support and the honour of his country, at a time when her waning fortune seems most to require such a man to uphold and adorn her, — let the public and the private life of Sir Samuel Romilly be his manual, — the subject of his daily and familiar contemplations.

ART. II. *Amyntas*, a Tale of the Woods; from the Italian of Torquato Tasso. By Leigh Hunt. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Allman. 1820.

WE have before discharged a critical duty, which we would not often willingly repeat, in censuring the faults of the poetry of Mr. Leigh Hunt; and we have done it rather in

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sorrow than in anger: for, however frequently our feelings of delicacy and good taste may have been violated by familiarity and quaintness both of thought and expression, we have acknowleged, as we proceeded, that these are "original sins" of Mr. Hunt's poetical nature, of which he cannot readily divest himself. They do not arise out of affectation and conceit, as we might at first suppose: they are rather the offspring of necessity; of singular and somewhat confined powers both of mind and language: but they are faults that never attach to a loftier order of poets. In Mr. H. they are considered only as *peculiarities*, and have invested him with the title of the Father of a School. Were they sins which would obey the rod of the exorcist, we think that he would before now have cast out the "evil spirit," since we have more than once applied our critical adjurations in his behalf. We even presented him with a list of the strange, unearthly, and evil words which this spirit uttered, extracted from his *Rimini*, and expostulated with its ravings in many other excesses which were most violent and strong. We would willingly persuade ourselves that our efforts, as they were kindly meant, have not been entirely unavailing: they have succeeded with greater men than he will ever be, and were foremost in discovering the dawn of genius in a gifted being whose aberrations and impetuosity they restrained, and whose greatness they appreciated and watched, until it rose the unrivalled master of every species of song.

It is, however, *sinful* to despair: the elements of good are mixed in every thing; and, though they lie too deep for superficial observation in the poetry of Mr. H., he has manifested occasional traces of good taste and feeling which, we repeat, would render it sinful in us to despair. We have perused the little volume before us with mingled pleasure and pain; with sensations sometimes deep and even mournful, such as the reading of true poetry should awaken, — sometimes ludicrous and mirthful, such as affectation and childishness will seldom fail to produce. Of these last, however, we observe fewer than in any of the former efforts of Mr. Hunt; and we do not hesitate to say that, with respect to language and versification, this translation is by far the best and least faulty of Mr. H.'s productions. If, in making this admission, we add that the style and subject of the original were well adapted for the display of his peculiar genius, then he has shewn judgment in the appreciation of his own powers by selecting it. In form and essence, as in language and character, it is on a small and natural scale of life, fitted to the poetical dimensions of the translator,

"Small by degrees, and beautifully less;"

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and the simple and natural as well as the conceited and trivial are rendered in the true spirit of echo and imitation.

In his desire to be perfectly natural, however, Mr. H. is apt to level himself somewhat below the truth of nature. He imagines that it resides only in simplicity, forgetting that true nature is consistent with perfect beauty and propriety; and that true poetry has also a nature of its own, elevated and great, opposed to that of our familiar language and of our common and daily life. The poetical world, though the offspring of the human, is the same neither in substance nor in spirit; and its beings are of a race more sublime in feeling, more pure in motive, and more lofty and godlike in speech and action. The soul of imagination is indeed drawn from our human passions: but it represents only those which are beautiful or terrible, and, with a Midas-like faculty, converts the dross of earth which it touches into gold. This, however, is not Mr. H.'s opinion; and therefore he expresses in language familiar and low that which should be truly great: his nobility is plebeian; his pathos is vulgar; and even his simplicity is contemptible. He has apparently moulded his poetic language on the *dicta* of a modern critic: who, with latitudinarian kindness towards the world, maintains that *every thing is poetry*, and that *we are all poets* * ; that the miser counting over his gold is an old calculating poet; that the city-apprentice gazing after the Lord Mayor's show is an ardent young poet; and that the ploughman making love to the milk-maid is more especially a poet. If Mr. H. has really imbibed this theory of his friend, the sooner he makes a breach in such a critical and poetical friendship the better it will be for him. It would require but very sickly abilities indeed to retail the ceremonies of a city-show, or the frivolity and gossip of a modern court. Yet in what other way can we characterize some of the expressions in the old and stately story of Rimini, as modernized by Mr. Leigh Hunt; such as,

> "He kept no reckoning with his sweets and sours."

> "There talking with the ladies you may see
> Standing about, or seated, frank and free,
> Some of the finest warriors of the court."

Again,

> "Yet somehow or another on that day."

* If we reasoned from the cloud of versifying publications which daily darkens our critical horizon, this would seem but too true.

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Then,

"By four and four, they ride on horses grey."

"How his new soldiers pleased him in reviewing."

Mr. Leigh Hunt is the sun of a little system of his own. The same light is shed on all the objects which he beholds, whether on the earth or on the ocean: and the phænomena of the world around, as well as of the invisible world of feelings within us, partake alike of the peculiar beams and hues with which he invests his poetical creation. Even men and women, brute-animals, trees, ships, and horses, when he describes them, are all exclusively the creatures or the work of Mr. Hunt. This power undoubtedly displays originality: but it may be either false or true, and may exist in a trifling as well as in a powerful and poetic spirit. In Mr. H. this originality is accompanied by great faults: he appears to be thinking more of himself, and his own singularity, than of his subject; and thus he gives rise to his quaintness and conceits. Real nature and enthusiasm are with him of secondary consideration: his production must receive the impress of his own manner first, and that of nature afterward. We cannot, therefore, call him a simple and natural poet; for he is too much of a mannerist to allow us to form any opinion as to what his natural and unstudied style would be.

Still this system is not without its use. It has beauties of its own, and of a peculiar kind; and it makes him notice objects that other poets have neglected, and describe them in words which though singular are often happy. There is a freshness of perception about his poetry, and his descriptions of scenery and character are given with ease. The lighter and more transient feelings are likewise under his controul, though the intenseness of the passions is exhibited with little effect. His genius and range of poetic power appear to us in unison rather with the sprightly and airy character of the more modern Italian, than with the antient Greek or Roman school: possessing vividness, but not strength; and bearing the same relation to our English literature and poetry which those of Bonarelli, Guarini, Marino, and perhaps Sannazzaro bear to the Italian, or those of Rucan and Delille to the French, and Garcilaso to the Spanish. These writers are the authors of poems distinguished rather for descriptions of rural life, and of love, than for great classical or epic talent.

Judging from this version of the *Aminta*, Mr. H. deserves as a translator to be classed by the side of the idyllic and lyric poets of Italy, though not of antiquity. The versatile genius of

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of Tasso placed him at the head even of these in his own country: celebrated as an epic poet, his lyric and dramatic effusions manifest a still stronger inspiration of passion and affection. The delightful pastoral of *Aminta* is deeply impressed throughout with the intense character and glowing expression of unfortunate love. In this species of composition, the poet exhibits more of nature, simplicity, and tenderness of thought than any one of his cotemporaries; and even the most beautiful parts of his heroic poem consist of episodes full of the same spirit of pathetic description and of amatory feeling. He has thus become so great a favourite with his countrymen as he still continues to be; and his poems have been divided into parts, and sung in the gondolas instead of ballads or songs. His odes and sonnets are likewise impregnated throughout with the characteristic sensibility and soul of the writer, and on this very ground have obtained their great superiority to those of Ariosto and the other romantic poets of Italy. His tragedies are the least powerful works which he produced: they are altogether imitations of the antients, and therefore less natural, more cold and uninteresting: they are scarcely comparable to those of Trissino, and are deficient in the fire and passion which give life to the more modern compositions of Alfieri and of Monti. Next to Dante, however, he is the most national poet whom the Italians possess.

In pastoral comedy, Tasso has no equal, except indeed it be Guarini: but their manner is so very different that we ought not to compare them. Neither of them was the first to revive this species of writing in Italy. At what time or in what way pastoral plays were first introduced there, we have no certain information: but they were most probably taken from the eclogues or romances of the Greeks, for it is evident that the Italians did not create the pastoral drama. By some it has been supposed that Theocritus and Bion were their prototypes: but Rapin asserts that the design is taken singly from the Cyclops of Euripides. If, however, they cannot lay claim to the invention, they very happily improved on some models of the antients. The first representation of a pastoral drama in Italy, of which we hear, was at Ferrara, in 1554. It is intitled "*Il Sacrifizio,*" and was written by Agostino Beccari, who obtained the greatest applause. The next, as Mr. H. in his preface informs us, was produced by a writer of the name of Alberti Lollio. The third, which was played before the court of Ferrara, when Tasso was present, was composed by Agostino degli Arienti, and intitled "*Lo Sfortunato.*" Tasso was ambitious of poetic fame, and his *Aminta* soon made

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its appearance, and speedily acquired that celebrity which it has since maintained. This was the fourth production of the kind, and undoubtedly the best. Menage, in his observations on it, proceeds to calculate fourscore pastoral plays in Italian, many of which are on piscatory subjects. In the year 1700, more than two hundred were to be seen in a person's possession at Rome; and among them the "*Filli di Sciro*" of Bonarelli, and the "*Arcadia*" of Sannazzaro are to be ranked next in genius to those of Tasso and Guarini. The chief merit of Bonarelli consists in the construction of the fable, which is more interesting and surprizing than that of any of the others. The *Arcadia* is rather a picture of rural life and manners than a dramatic story. It is written both in prose and verse, and exhibits, amid Arcadian scenery, the loves and pleasures as well as the sorrows of its shepherds and fishermen.

For sweetness of language and pathetic description, Sannazzaro is considered as little inferior to Tasso: but the excellence of Guarini appears to us to consist in the beauty of individual passages, and in those copious and pleasing though somewhat elaborate monologues and discourses, in which, adopting opposite opinions, he endeavoured to rival and excel the *Aminta*. The style of Tasso is the best fitted of all to a pastoral life: while, from its simplicity and ease, it is well adapted to the unity of the plot, and to the singleness of its character and manners. In these particulars it is not nearly so complex as the story of the *Pastor Fido*; and it displays not only more artless feelings, but a natural expression of the passions to which the work of Guarini, with all its elaborate skill, in vain aspires. The characters, though not free from a little Italian affectation and conceit, are generally true to nature: the action is extremely simple; the incidents are probable; and the figures are drawn from rural and pastoral life. In a few of the particular passages, Tasso has imitated Theocritus, as well as others of the Greek and Latin writers. His biographer Serrassi possessed a copy of Theocritus which had belonged to Tasso, and which he had scored over with marks and comments. — As Mr. H.'s translation is preceded by a very able and well written preface, we have pleasure in quoting the conclusion of it.

'It is from Theocritus that our poet took the Flight of Love and the rewards offered by Venus in the prologue, the comparison of love with a bee at the beginning of the second act, and the complaints of the satyr in that soliloquy. Minor touches of imitation are also scattered about from Theocritus, Moschus, and Anacreon. The satyr's curse upon mercenary love is from Tibullus. Thyrsis going

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going to the capital, and describing his patron as a god, is Virgil's Tityrus going to Rome and deifying Augustus. The torn veil of Sylvia is that of Thisbe in Ovid. The young and truly lover-like little story of the bee and Sylvia in act the first, scene the second, comes from the Greek romance of Clitophon and Leucippe. So does the pretty moral fiction of the viper's putting away her poison when she goes to her lover. The origin of the enamoured satyr is Pan and his followers; but the rejected Polyphemic satyr, unhappy in his love on account of the difference of his form, was first compounded by the inventor of the sylvan drama, Beccari; and it became such a favourite, that when Giraldi Cinthio, the novelist, contributed his quota of *Bosky* fable to the general stock, he made it up entirely of satyrs and nymphs. It is called Egle, and is worth reading. There is a strong aboriginal taste of nature in it; as if it had been written when gods, nymphs, and sylvans, had all the world to themselves. The idea of the cave in hell, where women are punished for cruelty to their lovers, (act i. sc. 1.) is from Ariosto. In Ariosto also, though I cannot refer to the passage, I remember finding the original of the pleasant fiction of the scene following, respecting the gossiping chairs and walls at court. It is not in Tasso's style; and as if conscious of this, he introduces it with great felicity as a story told to perplex him by another.

'In the former of these passages, Ariosto is personally alluded to, as "the great one who sung of arms and love." Thyrsis is Tasso himself; Battus is Battista Guarini; and Elpino is Il Pigna, a courtier and court-poet of that time, now forgotten but for this mention of him. The Mopsus mentioned elsewhere, is understood to mean Speron Speroni, a harsh critic, who prophesied ill of the Jerusalem, and had too sullenly warned Tasso against going to court. I need not add, that his court prophecy was better than his critical one.

'The chorusses at the end of the acts, for the most part, have a lyric majesty that announces the epic poet. They do not appear however to have been originally intended for the work. Some of them unquestionably were not. The one, for instance, at the end of the fourth act, is the first stanza of a magnificent canzone, which Tasso wrote thirteen years after, when he was in prison, on the nuptials of Don Cæsar of Este with Donna Virginia de' Medici. Nor is it easy to see how it got into its present situation. The chorus at the end of the third act, though a beautiful, brief piece of music in honour of love, has almost as little to do with its place; and appears as a separate piece in the author's Miscellaneous Poems. No "exquisite reason" is to be seen for the apostrophe in honour of rustic love eloquence at the end of the second act. In fact, the first and last chorusses are the only ones that are appropriate as well as beautiful. The former was destined to be without a fault of any sort. The latter is remarkably playful for Tasso's genius, and dismisses the audience smilingly like a modern epilogue.'

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We have said that we regard the little volume before us as altogether more free from the faults of Mr. Hunt's manner, than any of his productions that we have seen. This opinion, as far as prose-composition is concerned in it, will be justified by the preceding extract, and we shall very soon give proofs of it in his poetry. In truth, Mr. H. appears, in this individual work, to have been thinking more of Tasso than of himself. It exhibits more feeling and enthusiasm, and less of vulgar affectation, egotism, and conceit, than we observe in his usual style. He has also made fewer references to his own peculiar dictionary, for special, new-coined, and *expressive* words. He has shewn us that he is capable of better things when he pleases; and we shall henceforth hold him unpardonable, as a poet, if he neglects to avail himself of this capacity for improvement. We require from him no impossibilities: we will allow him still to be an original poet: but let him not, in order to make himself so *very* original, fall into absurdity and littleness.

The fable of the *Aminta* is almost too simple to require explanation; and its interest lies in the weaving of the incidents, and in the happy and surprizing developement. The machinery is that of a young and rather unmanageable deity, Love, who bursts from the rosy bands of his mother to take his pleasure in the world of streams and woods, and play with the hearts of happy Arcadian nymphs. Amyntas is in love with Sylvia: Thyrsis and Elpino are his friends: Ergastus is a wary bird-catcher; and to these is added a rough untutored satyr, "peeping through allies green," and stealing on their innocent sports. Sylvia is an Arcadian beauty, with her companions, Daphne and Nerina. The prologue is spoken by Love, disguised as a shepherd. The chorus is similar to that of the Greeks, consisting of several persons present, one of whom speaks at a time. The sylvan drama is naturally and beautifully said to originate from the divinity of love, who, personified as a shepherd, thus concludes the prologue:

'After new fashion shall these woods to-day
Hear love discoursed; and it shall well be seen,
That my divinity is present here
In its own person, not its ministers.
I will inbreathe high fancies in rude hearts;
I will refine, and render dulcet sweet,
Their tongues; because, wherever I may be,
Whether with rustic or heroic men,
There am I, Love; and inequality,
As it may please me, do I equalize;

And

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And 'tis my crowning glory and great miracle,
To make the rural pipe as eloquent
Even as the subtlest harp. If my proud mother,
Who scorns to have me roving in the woods,
Knows not thus much, 'tis she is *blind*, not I;
Though *blind* I am miscalled by *blinded* men.'

As the subject of the Arcadian pastoral is unfortunate love, Amyntas is the sighing swain; and Sylvia — "such is the name of this fair heart of rock," — is so extremely obdurate as to call for the supernatural interference of the heart's divinity. The boy-god brandishes his dart with almost the certainty of that of Death:

'And now will I with this,
Pierce with a deep immedicable wound
Into the hard heart of the cruellest nymph,
That ever followed on Diana's choir:'

but the fair shepherdess, so far from dreaming of her fate, opens the scene with lavish praises of her tutelary goddess. As a portion of this scene, both original and translated, is very beautiful, we shall transcribe it with satisfaction.

'*Daphne and Sylvia.*

'*Daphne.* And would'st thou then indeed, dear Sylvia,
Pass this young age of thine
Far from the joys of love? and would'st thou never
Hear the sweet name of mother; nor behold
Thy little children playing round about thee
Delightfully? Ah think,
Think, I beseech thee, do,
Simpleton that thou art.

'*Sylvia.* Let others follow the delights of love,
If love indeed has any. To my taste
This life is best. I have enough to care for
In my dear bow and arrows. My delight
Is following the chace; and when 'tis saucy,
Bringing it down; and so, as long as arrows
Fail not my quiver, nor wild deer the woods,
I fear no want of sport.

'*Daphne.* Insipid sport
Truly, and most insipid way of life!
If it is pleasant to thee, it is only
From ignorance of the other. The first people,
Who lived in the world's infancy, regarded
With like good sense their water and their acorns
As exquisite meat and drink; but now-a-days
Water and acorns are but food for beasts;
And grain and the sweet grape sustain humanity.
Ah! hadst thou once, but once,

Tasted

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Tasted a thousandth part of the delight
Which a heart tastes that loves and is beloved,
Thou would'st repent, and sigh, and say directly,
'Tis all but loss of time
That passes not in loying,
O seasons fled and gone,
How many widowed nights,
And solitary days
Which might have been wrapt round with this sweet life,
Have I consumed in vain!
A life, the more habituate, the more sweet!
Think, think, I pray thee, do,
Simpleton as thou art.
A late repentance is at least no pleasure.' Act i. scene 1.

These remonstrances of love, however, are useless; and the sighing shepherd is at last driven by her cruelty to the verge of a precipice, — and to despair. Before he arrives there, he unfolds his passionate trouble to his friend Thyrsis, and relates how he first became acquainted with his fair but cruel enslaver.

'SCENE 2. — *Thyrsis and Amyntas.*

'*Thyrsis.* Pray speak on. I listen eagerly,
Perhaps to better purpose than thou thinkest.
'*Amyntas.* While yet a boy, scarce tall enough to gather
The lowest hanging fruit, I became intimate
With the most lovely and beloved girl,
That ever gave to the winds her locks of gold.
Thou know'st the daughter of Cydippe and
Montano, that has such a store of herds,
Sylvia, the forest's honour, the soul's firer?
Of her I speak. Alas! I lived one time,
So fastened to her side, that never turtle
Was closer to his mate, nor ever will be.
Our homes were close together, closer still
Our hearts; our age conformable, our thoughts
Still more conformed. With her I tended nets
For birds and fish; with her followed the stag,
And the fleet hind; our joy and our success
Were common: but in making prey of animals
I fell, I know not how, myself a prey.
There grew by little and little in my heart,
I know not from what root,
But just as the grass grows that sows itself,
An unknown something, which continually
Made me feel anxious to be with her; and then
I drank strange sweetness from her eyes, which left
A taste, I know not how, of bitterness.
Often I sighed, nor knew the reason why;
And thus before I knew what loving was,

Was

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Was I a lover. Well enough I knew
At last; and I will tell thee how; pray mark me.
' *Thyrsis.* I mark thee well.
' *Amyntas.* One day, Sylvia and Phillis
Were sitting underneath a shady beech,
I with them; when a little ingenious bee,
Gathering his honey in those flowery fields,
Lit on the cheeks of Phillis, cheeks as red
As the red rose; and bit, and bit again
With so much eagerness, that it appeared
The likeness did beguile him. Phillis, at this,
Impatient of the smart, sent up a cry;
" Hush! Hush!" said my sweet Sylvia, " do not grieve;
I have a few words of enchantment, Phillis,
Will ease thee of this little suffering.
The sage Artesia told them me, and had
That little ivory horn of mine in payment,
Fretted with gold." So saying, she applied
To the hurt cheek, the lips of her divine
And most delicious mouth, and with sweet humming
Murmured some verses that I knew not of.
Oh admirable effect! a little while,
And all the pain was gone; either by virtue
Of those enchanted words, or as I thought,
By virtue of those lips of dew,
That heal whate'er they turn them to.
I, who till then had never had a wish
Beyond the sunny sweetness of her eyes,
Or her dear dulcet words, more dulcet far
Than the soft murmur of a humming stream
Crooking its way among the pebble-stones,
Or summer airs that babble in the leaves,
Felt a new wish move in me to apply
This mouth of mine to hers; and so becoming
Crafty and plotting, (an unusual art
With me, but it was love's intelligence,)
I did bethink me of a gentle stratagem
To work out my new wit. I made pretence,
As if the bee had bitten my under lip;
And fell to lamentations of such sort,
That the sweet medicine which I dared not ask
With word of mouth, I asked for with my looks.
The simple Sylvia then,
Compassioning my pain,
Offered to give her help
To that pretended wound;
And oh! the real and the mortal wound,
Which pierced into my being,
When her lips came on mine.
Never did bee from flower
Suck sugar so divine,

As

As was the honey that I gathered then
From those twin roses fresh.
I could have bathed in them my burning kisses,
But fear and shame withheld
That too audacious fire,
And made them gently hang.
But while into my bosom's core, the sweetness,
Mixed with a secret poison, did go down,
It pierced me so with pleasure, that still feigning
The pain of the bee's weapon, I contrived
That more than once the enchantment was repeated.
From that time forth, desire
And irrepressible pain so grew within me,
That not being able to contain it more,
I was compelled to speak; and so, one day,
While in a circle a whole set of us,
Shepherds and nymphs, sat playing at the game,
In which they tell in one another's ears
Their secret each, "Sylvia," said I in her's,
"I burn for thee; and if thou help me not,
I feel I cannot live." As I said this,
She dropt her lovely looks, and out of them
There came a sudden and unusual flush,
Portending shame and anger: not an answer
Did she vouchsafe me, but by a dead silence,
Broken at last by threats more terrible.
She parted then, and would not hear me more,
Nor see me. And now three times the naked reaper
Has clipped the spiky harvest, and as often
The winter shaken down from the fair woods
Their tresses green, since I have tried in vain
Every thing to appease her, except death.'

With sufficient fidelity to the original, Mr. H. has very happily contrived to throw much poetical expression, and little or nothing of affectation, into the specimens just quoted. We mark occasionally a slight heightening of the *concetti* which are to be found in Tasso, but this was too great a temptation for Mr. Hunt to withstand. His style, when free from its peculiar blemishes, seems well calculated for the display of rural life and manners, and for the description of natural objects. It reminds us, on a smaller scale, of the picturesque boldness and vividness of Dryden's fables from Chaucer and Boccaccio; and even a miniature-portrait of this great author is an acquisition to our gallery of British poets: but he has little of that energy and audacity of genius which characterized Dryden in every other species of writing. Mr. Hunt's models should be taken from the masters of the lighter Italian and the old English literature, from Boccaccio, Sannazzaro, and Bernardo Tasso: from Chaucer, Beaumont and

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and Fletcher, Jonson, and Marlow. We would advise him, however, to avoid Shakspeare, Milton, and Dante, as he would fly from giants: for we think that his success, in the little work before us, is to be chiefly attributed to his want of capacity for greater things. — We shall add one more extract, the most beautiful of the whole. It is the celebrated apostrophe to the Age of Gold, and is indeed nobly translated.*

' *Chorus.*

' O lovely age of gold!
Not that the rivers rolled
With milk, or that the woods dropped honey dew;
Not that the ready ground
Produced without a wound,
Or the mild serpent had no tooth that slew;
Not that a cloudless blue
For ever was in sight,
Or that the heaven which burns,
And now is cold by turns,
Looked out in glad and everlasting light;
No, nor that ev'n the insolent ships from far
Brought war to no new lands, nor riches worse than war:
But solely that that vain
And breath-invented pain,
That idol of mistakes, that worshipped cheat,
That Honour, — since so called
By vulgar minds appalled,
Played not the tyrant with our nature yet.
It had not come to fret
The sweet and happy fold
Of gentle human-kind;
Nor did its hard law bind
Souls nursed in freedom; but that law of gold,
That glad and golden law, all free, all fitted,
Which Nature's own hand wrote, — What pleases, is permitted.

' Then among streams and flowers
The little winged powers
Went singing carols without torch or bow:
The nymphs and shepherds sat
Mingling with innocent chat

* On referring to Daniel's elegant version of this chorus, printed in Chalmers's Poets under the title of " A Pastoral," we discovered that the translation by Mr. Black, which we commended in M. R. vol. lxv. p. 11. N. S., appears to be little better than a plagiarism from the old writer. The late George Ellis inserted the " *Pastoral*" in his " Specimens of the early English Poets," as a sample of Daniel's *original* poetry.

Sports

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Sports and low whispers; and with whispers low
Kisses that would not go.
The maiden, budding o'er,
Kept not her bloom uneyed,
Which now a veil must hide,
Nor the crisp apples which her bosom bore:
And oftentimes, in river or in lake,
The lover and his love their merry bath would take.

'Twas thou, thou, Honour, first
That didst deny our thirst
Its drink, and on the fount thy covering set:
Thou bad'st kind eyes withdraw
Into constrained awe,
And keep the secret for their tears to wet:
Thou gatheredst in a net
The tresses from the air,
And mad'st the sports and plays
Turn all to sullen ways,
And put'st on speech a rein, in steps a care.
Thy work it is, — thou shade that wilt not move, —
That what was once the gift, is now the theft of Love.

'Our sorrows and our pains,
These are thy noble gains!
But oh, thou Love's and Nature's masterer,
Thou conq'ror of the crowned,
What dost thou on this ground,
Too small a circle for thy mighty sphere?
Go and make slumber dear
To the renowned and high:
We here, a lowly race,
Can live without thy grace,
After the use of mild antiquity.
Go; let us love: since years
No trace allow, and life soon disappears.
Go; let us love: the daylight dies, is born;
But unto us the light
Dies once for all; and sleep brings on eternal night.'

This is written in the very spirit of reformation, and we congratulate the author. He has set us an example of introducing it into our poetry, as well as into more serious and weighty matters; and when we contemplate the arbitrary distinctions and peculiarities of our various schools, we think that there is indeed room for the improvement. In this translation we can scarcely perceive that Mr. H. belongs to any school. He seems (as we have before said) to have forgotten himself, and the poetic sect of which he is the leader; — and, yielding for a moment to a genuine admiration of his author, he has in consequence written from feelings of enthusiasm

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siasm in the language of nature and common sense. Let him continue to obey the dictates of this spirit, and abjure the absurd and heretical doctrines which he has hitherto propagated with mischievous success, and to the corruption equally of good prose and good poetic language among his infatuated followers. Let him do this, for he *can* do it, and we shall hail his future productions with pleasure.

It would be too much, however, to make our readers believe that the present work is *wholly* an exception to Mr. H.'s general manner. It betrays a *very few* specimens of quaintness and conceit, of which it now becomes our duty to remind him. Affectation of expression, in rendering the sense of the original, occurs in the following lines:

'When every where he followed her about
To chace and sport, young lover his young lass.' P. 5.

'Tis she is *blind*, not I;
Though *blind* I am miscalled by *blinded* men.' P. 6.

'My delight
Is following the chace; and when 'tis *saucy*,
Bringing it down.' P. 10.

'What the woods *know*, and what the mountains *know*,
And what the rivers *know*, and man *knows* not.' P. 28.

'Lifts him with a *sparkling* hand.' P. 137.

'A deadly ice has *shot about* my heart
And shuts up my loud spirit.' P. 102.

The following line is false metre:

'The banks of the river, I told him my journey.' P. 38.

As less power and beauty are shewn in the subsequent portion of this little sylvan drama, we shall not continue our extracts, but refer the reader to the volume at his leisure. Tasso appears to have put forth his strength on particular parts, rather than on the whole, and his translator has judiciously followed him in this selection. As the subject is pastoral comedy, the termination of course is happy. — The volume is illustrated with a portrait of the Italian poet, and with little wood-cuts descriptive of Arcadian scenery and Arcadian loves.

ART.

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ART. III. *Walks through Ireland*, in the Years 1812, 1814, and 1817; described in a Series of Letters to an English Gentleman. By John Bernard Trotter, Esq. private Secretary to the late Right Hon. C. J. Fox, &c. 8vo. 600 pp. Sir R. Phillips and Co. 1819.

THE name of Trotter is familiar to the public from his "Memoirs of the latter Years of Mr. Fox," of which the readers of our journal will have little difficulty in calling to recollection our report, (November, 1811,) and the censure which we felt it incumbent on us to pass on the writer. His singular errors in that volume, and his quarrel with the friends and successors of his ministerial patron, unavoidably suggest the impression of much imprudence; and we have seldom, in the course of our reading, seen a biographical sketch that more strongly recalled the errors and misfortunes of Savage, than that which is prefixed to this book by the editor.

Mr. T. was born in 1775, and educated for the church, but abandoned his profession on finding that preferment could not keep pace with his eager expectations. Coming subsequently to London, he entered himself at the Temple, and, being introduced by a relation to Mr. Fox, had the honour of forming an acquaintance with that lamented statesman. On Mr. F.'s journey to the Continent in 1802, in quest of documents for his historical work, Mr. T. accompanied him; and, when the Opposition came into office in 1806, he accepted an invitation to be Mr. F.'s private secretary. On the death of the minister he returned to Ireland, and commenced a political publication called the "Historical Register," which did not succeed. A similar failure attended other undertakings, not from deficient ability, but from the author's total disregard of the feelings of every party, and from his writing as if he alone had been the only representative of consistency and public spirit. To this disadvantage was added a repeated change of occupation, his mind being turned at one time to politics, and at another to poetry. His labours in the latter department would have been cordially patronized, but he had not steadiness to persevere in them; and several liberal donations from the Prince Regent, Lord Holland, and Lady Liverpool, served only to redeem him from the pressure of temporary embarrassment, and laid no solid foundation for the future. His constitution, never strong, became progressively impaired by the vicissitudes of his situation; and, after having exhausted both the beneficence of friends and the resources of an inventive mind, he sank into a decay which terminated his life in September, 1818, in his 43d year.

Mr. Trotter

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Mr. Trotter was partial to pedestrian excursions, and the volume now published contains three tours: the first performed in 1812, and extending southward from Dublin through the counties of Wicklow and Wexford: the second, comparatively short, took place in 1814, and consisted of an excursion from Dublin to the Boyne, and back: but the third, accomplished in 1817, embraced a space of three months, and a peregrination of 1000 miles through the south and west of Ireland. The author travelled with a companion whom he dignified with the title and office of secretary, and the notes then kept supplied the materials for the letters which constitute the present publication.

In his tour through the counties of Wicklow and Wexford, particularly the latter, Mr. T. observed many marks of the effects of cultivation by English settlers. The farm-houses are there more commodious; the land is better inclosed; the live-stock is in good condition; the dress of the lower orders is decent, and even neat; and the cottage-system is less prevalent than in the adjacent counties. Yet it is a curious fact that the Gaelic or Irish language is still spoken currently in Wexford, the county in which the English first settled, and where consequently an extra-proportion of their descendants is perceptible. 'Does not this prove,' asks Mr. T., p. 39., 'that no extirpation was practised, and that the English were far from meriting the reproach of unrelenting destroyers of all that Ireland held dear?' He goes on to add that Ireland was then, and had long been, so divided and subdivided among petty sovereigns, that it could scarcely fail to become the prey of some foreign invaders; and he recalls the remarkable fact that Agricola, when commanding the Roman troops in Britain, received a refugee prince from Ireland, and long detained him, to be made useful in the event of circumstances rendering such a conquest expedient. "I often heard from Agricola," says Tacitus, "that Ireland could have been conquered and kept by a single legion, with small occasional reinforcements." At the period of the invasion of the English, (the year 1170,) the maritime part of Ireland was in possession not of the natives but of the Danes.

In the second tour, the most remarkable object that came under the observation of the author was Dangan castle, in the county of Meath, formerly the seat of the Wellesleys, but sold, towards the close of the last century, by the father of the present family. It has since passed through several hands, and is now in a very neglected state: the demesnes are extensive, and the woods are noble, but the castle is at present a mere shell. The travellers accounted themselves

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very fortunate in discovering a retired country house, in which the Duke of Wellington, when Colonel Wellesley, passed some time in tranquil study previously to his going to India. His Grace is nearly of the age of Bonaparte, and has run a career of advancement which we seldom witness: yet so rapid was promotion under the revolutionary government of France, that while the Duke, who held no higher rank than that of colonel, was forming himself in retirement, his continental cotemporary had become known as the ravager of Italy.

The third and by far most interesting tour began at Cork, and continued in a northerly direction through the counties of Limerick, Clare, Galway, and Mayo; until the travellers explored the western shores of Ireland on the verge of the Atlantic, and penetrated into sequestered tracts little known to the descendants of English settlers, but inhabited by the successors of native Irish who were driven thither after the dreadful confiscations of Cromwell. In whatever way he turned his steps, whether to the south, the west, or the north, Mr. T. was assailed with complaints of exorbitant rents, and of the impracticability of supporting a family under such a burden.

'*County Wicklow, June*, 1812.

'As we overtook two small farmers we joined in conversation. They complained of the dearness of land, of every thing being let over their heads, and their wish to go to America in the Spring. They spoke with feeling and propriety; one of them, a man somewhat in years, repeating, that he wished to go to America, and send for his family. I could not help remarking, that he must be pretty comfortable, and that it would be a great change: Why, then, would you emigrate? He emphatically replied, "Because I can never be better as I am. Times promise to be worse, and such farmers as we are cannot possibly stand it long. The gentry think they can never have enough land in their own hands, and what they do not keep, jobbers are ready to take and give fines for, and thus root out the old resident from the soil. Why should we then stay in this country?" I asked him of Lord Fitzwilliam as a landlord? "Pretty well, but no absentee can be a good one. They ruin Ireland. They cannot see the distress of tenants, and the deputy must always remit as much money as he can. Neither can they protect us. They are too distant, and too full of other things, than being resident guardians to poor Irish tenants!" I sighed heavily, and, impressed with the truth of all he said, bid him a sympathizing farewell!'

Another and a much more affecting example of agricultural distress occurred when Mr. T. was traversing the western shore of Connaught.

'As

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'As we stopped to enquire our way, at a hut of very small dimensions and built of turf on the side of a bog, which contained a man, his wife, and four fine children, we were told his short story. "Simple are the annals of the poor;" and, oh! my dear L., in those of one poor family how many annals of thousands of families may be comprized! The simplicity of the history is then lost in the magnitude of the wretchedness it may represent. The account this poor fellow gave, was, that he had a very good farm till last year, — the high rents had ruined him; — his things were all sold by auction; — and he was now existing on the bog-side, not knowing well what to do, and unable to procure daily labour! He was a young man of very intelligent countenance, and well formed. As we said we wished the poor people to be relieved, and, perhaps, would endeavour to do something to ameliorate their present misery, he listened and looked, — his countenance glowed, — his eyes filled with tears, — he cast down the shoes and stockings he held, — and instead of pointing out our way, ran on before us, to be himself our guide and guardian. He brought us to a small inlet of the sea, as our shortest way, and carried each of us across, the water reaching to his knees. For this service he refused money. All was the impulse and the act of a few moments.

'If gratitude was thus easily made to burn in one poor peasant's breast, my dear L., how might it be lighted up in those of millions! A similar character reigns among the Irish, particularly the people of Connaught. Their sensibility is extraordinary. It has been to them the source of much misery and little joy. England has never for centuries understood them; and the severe hand of the unfeeling elder brother has lain heavily on their bowed necks. Who could restrain the tear at perceiving this wretchedness, — these feelings, — this gratitude in the poor peasant at the bog-side? — in the fellow-creature and man? — This unhappy being had lost his paternal farm, — his fields, meadows, and well-known streams!'

North-west of Connaught.—The tracts in this remote quarter visited by Mr. T. were the island of Achill and the country of Erris. The occupation of the peasantry is the culture of potatoes, and, in particular spots, of barley or oats: fishing is carried on along the coast, but only in the summer-season. Linen-weaving has also been extended since the troubles of 1798 drove hither a number of the manufacturers from Ulster: but here are no inclosures or gardens; all is nature in her undress, forming a striking contrast to the improved counties, such as Down and Wexford. We must not, however, infer a corresponding backwardness in individual intellect or activity: the persons of the inhabitants, says Mr. T., (p. 493.) are well formed and active; their dress is comfortable and good; and their general resemblance to French peasantry is very striking. The great want of the country is its deficiency

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in roads and small market towns, none being nearer than Newport or Castlebar, a distance of 30 or 40 miles; and, unfortunately, dispensaries and hospitals are equally remote. Still the local advantages, particularly the abundance of fish and of sea-manure, would accelerate the improvement of cultivation, were not the best lands let according to an old practice in a sort of tenantry in common. A hamlet divides a portion of land among its inhabitants, who are pledged collectively to pay a certain rent; so that any deficiency from the indolence or intemperance of individuals must be made up by the body at large. This circumstance operates as a continual cause of discord, and as a discouragement to that exertion which can become great only when its fruits are to be enjoyed by the individual.

An excursion through almost any part of Ireland brings before the traveller its canals, roads, quays, and great buildings, all on too large a scale for so poor a country, and all as yet little wanted or used. Instead of these expensive undertakings, Mr. T. recommends (p. 477.) to the attention of Government the formation of small country-roads, the establishment of dispensaries, the erection of market-towns, and the extension of the fisheries. Ireland has long been to England a nursery of soldiers, and, in some measure, of seamen: but she has also been a source of great expence. At present, the revenue derived from her is wholly unequal to defray the interest of her national debt and the charges of the military establishment which she requires; and it is a curious fact that similar complaints were made so far back as the reigns of Edward I. and Edward III. Mr. T. is by no means slow in making such acknowlegements, and in admitting (p. 279.) that the Irish peasantry generally prefer masters and landlords of English extraction to those of the indigenous race. Our countrymen, he adds, are willing to recognize the rights of men in the inferior walks of life, and, taught by our constitution to consider law as our guide, do not seek to assume a false and fictitious superiority. He has also the candour to acknowlege that the unfortunate state of the Irish peasantry is, in some degree, their own fault: neither the cottages nor the small farm-houses possessing that cleanliness which sobriety and industry on the part of the occupant would not fail to introduce; — nor are their gardens either stocked with vegetables or adorned with flowers, — the tenant of the humble cot preferring 'to pass his hours of leisure at the fire, or in the sun, or in taking a lazy walk to the ale-house.' The habit of drinking (adds Mr. T., p. 75.) produces effects worse even than those that are generally attributed

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buted to it: 'for it obliterates the virtuous inclinations of youth, makes the temper peevish and sullen, and creates repugnance to the remonstrances of friends.'

The following passage, we presume, would have been offensive to Irish readers from any but a countryman:

'We arrived late last night at Navan, a considerable and populous country town of Meath. Our walk was tedious and very fatiguing. Add to this, we saw a great deal of wretchedness — mud-cottages without chimnies; — no gardens, no poultry; and, too often, the sad evidence of a joyless existence, from smoke issuing from the doors and windows of the cottages. Meath, however, is a fine arable county; but the want of comfortable dwellings, and of green crops, of trees, and all the minor appendages of rural life, makes it appear, except where demesnes occur, which in some places are numerous, very uninteresting. —

'Navan is a large populous country town, situate in the midst of a fertile country, having some internal trade, but very insufficient employment for its population. The long rows of miserable cottages which present themselves to the eye on entering Navan, kept in a very filthy manner in the interior, (and rendered unhealthy and odious, by pools of water and heaps of moist manure under their windows and before their doors,) give an unpleasing picture of human nature, and almost realize the dreams of the satirical Swift. Navan, too truly, may be said to represent most of the small towns in Ireland, in this respect. Laziness and pride operate strongly on this people. The latter prevents them seeing their own faults, or admitting them — the former makes them live wallowing in a nasty manner, rather than using the exertions they ought to make their dwellings and themselves somewhat decent. It will not do to lay the fault solely on the degradation of the country, by a bad system. There is a foolish, and, indeed, incredible degree of family pride runs through this race, which gives numbers of them, of the lowest class, a saucy insolence and contempt for others, generating in itself a neglect of education and of industry; which makes so many towns, villages, and so much of the country not much superior to the approach to Navan!'

Amid all these pictures of misery, it is a source of some comfort that the efforts of Mr. T. were productive of relief to the lower orders, in a season of great distress from the combined effects of want and sickness. When travelling along the western coast, he made representations to Mr. Peel, then secretary for Ireland, and obtained government-aid for the poor at several towns in which they had suffered most severely from the contagious fever so general and so destructive in 1817. He is by no means an alarmist on the ground of over-population, having visited many districts, particularly in Connaught, where cultivation is yet in its infancy, and where thousands of acres lie waste which industry, properly guided,

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might convert into smiling farms. This fact was strikingly exemplified in his progress (pp. 509, 510, 511.) along the western shore, where he saw on the one hand vallies of solitude, and on the other large quantities of mucilaginous sea-moss cast along the beach, and lying unused. The removal of a portion of the peasantry from a crowded to a half cultivated district might, in Mr. T.'s opinion, be attended with great advantage.

The chief historical allusions in this book relate to the reign of Henry II. and James II.; the former being suggested by the tour through Wexford, and the latter by a visit to the Boyne. A great part of the narrative is confined to local and individual topics: a tourist, and above all a pedestrian tourist, being apt to reason from a limited sphere, having before him no collection of documents, no comprehensive statements, and arriving at general conclusions only after long continued observation. We cannot but regret that a volume embracing such a variety of matter is not accommodated by either a table of contents or an index: at present, the reader, who desires to form to himself a comprehensive idea of the information contained in the book, is obliged to collect it by a tedious and irksome process from detached letters. Still, notwithstanding this want of arrangement, and the introduction of common-place quotations, the work forms an useful addition to our stock of information regarding Ireland. It exhibits not only the philanthropic feeling to be expected from the writer, but a portion of reflection and discretion scarcely to be anticipated by those who judged of him from his "Memoirs of Mr. Fox," or from the romantic imprudence of his conduct in life. When treating of Ireland, Mr. T. was fortunately master of his subject, the sufferings of the lower orders of his countrymen having been familiar to him from his early years; and, without much knowlege of political economy, he arrived by dispassionate reflection at sound and just conclusions. Yet, as if unwilling to exchange an imaginary for a real world, he allows his readers to discover that he is a believer in the legend of the Milesian kings of Ireland!

From Connaught, Mr. T. pursued his journey to the southward, and, having visited the lakes of Killarney, returned to Cork, and prepared the MS. of the present volume. It was not, however, his fortune to go farther; his spirits, kept up by the interesting objects in his tour, and subsequently by the ardour of composition, now gave way, and he fell into that lingering malady which caused his death. — We conclude with

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with a summary of his character, from the prefixed biographical sketch:

'In contemplating the character of this ingenious but most unfortunate gentleman, there will be found much to censure, and much to praise. His prominent failing was vanity. An eagerness for popular applause led him into extravagant expence, and an overweening opinion of his knowledge in politics, and his talents as an author, induced him to neglect a respectable and lucrative profession, and devote his time to a pursuit from which he seldom gathered either fame or profit. His modes of thinking were fanciful, and his style in writing loose and declamatory; and there was generally something negligent, incorrect, or imprudent, connected with all he said and did. In fact, he totally wanted judgment to guide him in the great or little concerns of life; in the first he was visionary, pursuing romantic notions of impracticable perfection; in the second, he was weak, the slave of passion, and the martyr of imprudence. On the other hand, he possessed genius and talent, a quick conception and an uncommon facility of composition; his mind was imbued with a fund of classic images, which an intimate knowledge and taste for the dead languages supplied; but his favourite language was Italian, the beauties of which he felt and understood; many passages in his own writings, drawn from those sources, display great ability and beauty; and had his judgment in correction been equal to his readiness in composition, his writings would be highly and deservedly praised. He had a kind and warm heart, never neglecting an opportunity of doing a good action, and often promoting the interests of others to the neglect of his own.'

ART. IV. *Views of Society and Manners in the North of Ireland;* in a Series of Letters written in the Year 1818. By John Gamble, Esq., Author of "Irish Sketches," "Sarsfield." "Northern Irish Tales," &c. 8vo. pp. 423. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

WITHOUT including in our estimate of Mr. Gamble's publications the two imaginary narratives noticed in the above title-page, the present forms his third contribution to a description of the actual society and manners of the north of Ireland. Our readers have merely to refer to our lxvith and lxxiid volumes for our report of the two preceding books on that subject; and they will find that, while we expressed our approbation of the general fidelity of his descriptions, we regretted a certain disposition to prolixity, which seems unluckily to increase as the author continues to dwell on the same succession of topics.

In the present volume, the early letters are dated from London, and from different towns of England on the road to

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Holyhead; Mr. G. having passed some of his early years in this part of the country, and delighting to linger on the scenes of his youth. Arriving at last in Dublin, he enters on a disquisition respecting that contagious fever which in 1817 spread so general a mortality through Ireland, and of which we have spoken in the article immediately preceding this; a topic on which, from being, as he informs us, a son of Esculapius, his remarks are intitled to some attention. The fundamental causes of this dreadful scourge were doubtless a deficiency of wholesome food, and the want of cleanliness in the lower orders. Dublin, says Mr. G., so far from being exempt from the national misery, exhibits scenes of wretchedness more squalid and more offensive than he ever saw in any town or village of Ireland. The introduction of a habit of cleanliness would be the greatest blessing that could be conferred on the Irish poor, and a most proper object for the exertions of an association of the higher classes; for it would operate to lessen that disposition to intemperance in drinking, which happily is already in a great measure banished from among the upper ranks. It appears, however, (p. 157.) that the ravages of the fever were as great in the higher as in the lower classes; the excessive use of medicine and the occasional terrors among the former proving an evil equivalent to the deficient cleanliness and the confined air of the habitations of the cottager.

After having witnessed a contested election for the University of Dublin, Mr. G. left the capital, and proceeded northward on the proper object of his journey.

'A great proportion of the inhabitants of the north of Ireland are the descendants of Scotchmen, settled here after the accession of James I. to the throne of England. In some of the maritime counties opposite to Scotland, the Irish were almost entirely expelled; the inhabitants, therefore, retain their Scotch manners in more primitive freshness. In this part of the country, subjugation of the unfortunate native was equally complete, but expulsion was by no means so general; the new comers took possession only of the vallies and fertile spots, and kindly left the native the bogs and mountains. By degrees, as fear abated and rancour subsided, he crept slowly down, and the lowly Presbyterian, who was now become of consequence enough to have another to do for him what he was once happy to have to do himself, allowed him to labour the land which he once possessed; and when his spirit was fairly broken to his fortunes, treated his humble hewer of wood, and drawer of water, with something that resembled kindness.

'In the progress of time, the two nations were in some degree intermingled; — Irish vivacity enlivened Scotch gravity; — Irish generosity blended with Scotch frugality, and a third character was formed, it would be presuming in me to say better than either,

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either, but certainly different from both. It is of this people, so peculiar, and until lately so little known, that I again venture to write; and by brief tale, by slight sketch, by occasional dialogue, and passing observation and recollection, endeavour to make better known.'

In one part of Mr. G.'s road, (near Navan, in the county of Meath,) he saw the spot where the first blood was shed in the unfortunate rebellion of 1798; and his farther progress brought him to a small town (Coote-hill) in which, at an earlier period of life, he had passed several years: but his companions were no more; and it is here that the reader is first struck with that note of melancholy, which, with only occasional interruptions, is continued throughout the book: — the note of a person become forlorn, and forsaken by the companions of his early days.

'I should never advise him who quits in early life the place of his birth, to come back in matured age in expectation of enjoyment. If he does, and has but ordinary sensibility, he will be disappointed. If such a hope has been his solace in a strange land, I pity him, for it will fail him the moment his heel touches his native earth. The scenes of his youth he may return to, but his youthful joys, like his youthful years, will return no more; like luminous vapours which mislead the benighted traveller, they shine on him from afar, only to plunge him as he approaches in darker gloom.' (P. 168.)

The state of Ireland affords, we must confess, too much ground for Mr. G.'s melancholy, since no where has the reaction consequent on the change from war to peace been more severely felt: the bow, too forcibly bent, has sprung back with hideous recoil. Agriculture received the first shock; and the linen-manufacture, a branch of industry of as great importance to Ireland as the woollen or cotton manufacture to England, soon felt the general depression: many were unable to purchase the flax-seed necessary to sow their ground; and the agricultural part of the community presented a succession of law-suits, ejectments, and imprisonments. Violence, however, adds Mr. Gamble, has in its own nature a remedy; and law-suits became less frequent where so little means of payment were left, and where the creditor was frequently without the power of prosecuting his demand. This state of things has unfortunately produced a listless indifference to political speculation, as too remote in its operation, and in fact totally inadequate for a remedy; and those who in any degree take the trouble to contemplate a change imagine that Ireland needs not stir in it, and that it will be effected with greater ease and less bloodshed in England: but the author, amid all his

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his sensibility to the distress of the lower orders, deprecates the idea of revolutionary change as unavoidably replete, whether in England or Ireland, with scenes of bloodshed and horror. At the same time he considers emigration as affording a very inadequate relief, because it is confined to one class of the inhabitants of the north of Ireland, the Presbyterians, 'the sturdy though decaying oak of the country.' The Catholic seldom emigrates, because he and his predecessors have been long accustomed to a life of hardship; and a cabin for shelter, and potatoes for food, are all that he requires.

In the course of his tour, Mr. G. visited Enniskillen, a word more familiar to English readers as the designation of a regiment of dragoons than as the appellative of a town in the sister-kingdom: it is, however, a well-built place, memorable in history for the successful stand made by its Protestant inhabitants against the Catholic army of James II.; and attractive to every tourist by the extent of its lake, crowded with green islands, and adorned with rich cultivation or verdant planting to the water's edge. — From this beautiful spot, the traveller pursued a course partly to the north and partly to the east, comprizing the towns of Strabane, Dungannon, Armagh, Belfast, and Londonderry; until his tour closed with the Giants' Causeway, which forms as great an attraction in the north as the lakes of Killarney present in the south of Ireland.

Mr. G. is evidently actuated by a desire of rambling, and not less, as we judge from the frequency of his publications, by that of giving the result of his rambles to the world. His book would have possessed greater interest if it had been interspersed with statistical matter extracted from public documents; which, though not so abundant in the sister-island as in England, might by a careful digest be made a source of much interesting information. Such communications, given with respect either to towns or tracts of country, would have introduced variety into his narrative; relieving it from much of the monotony attendant on a continued tone of complaint, and a too frequent insertion of details about individuals: the effect of which here, as in the case of Mr. Trotter's Letters on Ireland, (see the preceding article,) is to confine the interest of the narrative, in a great measure, to readers on the western side of St. George's Channel.—The present volume is also much less characterized by novelty of remark than its predecessors, especially Mr. G.'s earliest publication: his composition discovers symptoms of exhaustion; and it is only from a desire to eke out his pages to the dimensions of an octavo, that we can account for the introduction (p. 77.) of some very indifferent

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ferent puns, or (p. 239.) of the yet less expected accompaniment of dreams. Still, however, it is evidently the work of a mind familiar with historical allusions, and capable of enlightened and comprehensive views.

ART. V. Dr. Macculloch's *Description of the Western Islands of Scotland.*

[*Article continued from our last Review, p.* 375.]

ALTHOUGH *Staffa* has been repeatedly described, the reader of these volumes will find that the subject was not exhausted; and future visitors to this far-famed spot are assured, for their comfort, that, under proper management, 'a landing may almost always be effected with safety in any weather in which a boat of the class usually employed in visiting it would keep the sea, or leave the port of Ulva.' They will, moreover, feel themselves indebted to the present geological tourist for some friendly and important hints relative to the most desirable mode of navigating in this Highland Archipelago.

It has been alleged that sand-stone is subjacent to the trap-conglomerate on which the basaltic columns in Staffa rest: but Dr. M. could discern no indications of sand-stone, even at the low water of an equinoctial spring-tide; and he suspects that the trap-conglomerate, under certain circumstances, has been carelessly mistaken for it. The mineral composition of the columnar basalt, which has precisely the same aspect as that of the Giants' Causeway, cannot be accurately ascertained either by the magnifying glass or by chemical analysis; so very minute are its particles, and so intimately are they combined: but Dr. M. presumes that they consist of the powder of compact felspar and augit. The materials of the singular alluvial deposit on different parts of the surface of this island are no where to be found *in situ* nearer than Mull; whence it is not unreasonable to conjecture that Staffa has been disjoined from the latter, but in what manner, or at what period, it were vain to inquire.

'On that midsummer evening which terminated the preceding observations on Staffa, the sun had set far toward the north, but the red twilight was still shining at midnight on the grey mountains of Mull and the walls of Iona; its colour being reflected on a sea that was tranquil as a mirror, and every object around in repose. We had been busily employed from five in the morning, and, like the sea-birds that were floating by us on the silent water, the seamen were sleeping on their oars. While the helmsman alone watched for all, the idea of the present work first suggested itself to

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to his mind. If the reader shall derive instruction or entertainment from it, he has not, for many perilous and busy months, and in seas of a far different character, watched at the helm in vain.'

This passage instinctively recalls the fine musings of Gibbon, when he went forth to meditate on the conclusion of his literary labours. We may not, however, linger in summer-bowers, while the stern voice of duty summons us to remote *St. Kilda*. As Martin and Macaulay published their respective accounts of this lonely isle at different periods, and not with the most scrupulous regard to accuracy, we are happy to find that Dr. M. has charitably included it within the range of his speculations. The amount of the population, which in the course of generations has greatly vacillated, consisted, when he visited the island, of twenty families, composed of 103 individuals. The soil, which is verdant and not sterile, is mostly allotted to the feeding of sheep and cattle; and, as this species of produce cannot be conveniently exported, its surplus-amount is consumed on the spot: so that the inhabitants live and fare better than most of the Hebridians, without ever engaging in fishing, or urging their agricultural resources to the maximum of cultivation. The whole annual rent is only 40l.; and it is paid chiefly in feathers, the produce of the innumerable birds that frequent the cliffs in order to breed, and which at the same time form a principal part of the food of the natives, being used both fresh and salted. The peat, corn, hay, and even the winter-stock of salted birds, are lodged in drying houses, which admit air while they exclude rain. The land is held conjointly, according to the old and barbarous system of *run-rig*; and the sheep are of the antient Highland or Norwegian breed, which has disappeared almost every where else. The *quern* is still in use for the grinding of grain, a labour that devolves to the females: but distillation and the use of ardent spirits are happily unknown. With the only effective boat belonging to the island, a voyage to the Long Island is accomplished once, or at most twice, in the course of the year; in order to barter that portion of the wool, feathers, and cheese, which is not required in payment of rent, for the few commodities which the simple existence of these insulars may happen to require. Most of their superstitious notions have gradually died away: but they still retain the absurd belief that, on the arrival of a stranger, they are all seized with a cold. Their reputation for music, if it was ever well founded, no longer exists: but the mention of the subject suggests a few recondite pages on the music of the Highlands of Scotland. Of the merits of this disquisition, we,

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we, *Sassenachs*, may be very incompetent judges: but it is a curious fact that the melodies of the Chinese and of the Japanese possess the Scotish character. By attending to the author's directions, the navigator, and the intending visitor of St. Kilda, may approach its dreaded shores with confidence; and the landscape-painter may be induced to resort to its dizzy heights, and contemplate scenery of undefined grandeur, which it is so difficult to express on canvass.

The rocks of St. Kilda all belong to the trap-family, in the most extensive sense of the term; and including syenite, analogous to that of Sky, Mull, and Rum. The cliffs formed by this last are generally mural, and defy not only the climbing powers of the natives but even the lodgement of the sea-fowl. By far the larger portion of the island, however, is composed of a dark trap-rock, which assumes sometimes the aspect of green-stone, and sometimes that of basalt: but its junction with the syenite and its various modifications cannot be very closely or coolly investigated, 'from the turbulent sea below, or from a perilous station on the overhanging precipice.'

From a recapitulation of the leading phænomena presented by the Trap-Islands, it appears to be extremely probable that, with the exception of St. Kilda, they originally consisted of a continuous deposit; and that their formation is connected with that of the main land.

The islands illustrative of the great sand-stone formation of Scotland may be more briefly despatched, as they are mostly insignificant in extent and produce, although in a geological point of view they are well intitled to consideration. To this class belong the three *Croulin Isles*, a petty groupe, consisting of the same hard red sand-stone, schistose sand-stone, and graywacké schist, which are found in Sky; and they connect the latter with the extensive sand-stone territory of the adjoining shore of Applecross. The *Summer Isles*, which lie scattered off the entrance to Loch Broom, amount to thirty in number: but only nine of them are of sufficient size to be occupied as pastures, and one alone, called *Tanera More*, is inhabited. These, likewise, with one exception, consist of a red sand-stone, similar to that of Rasay and the upper beds of Sky; the finer kinds irregularly alternating with the gravelly and conglomerate beds. *Handa* forms one of those detached masses of sand-stone, still reposing on gneiss, which are so frequent and sometimes so small on this coast. On comparing all the dispersed fragments of this description, it is reasonable to presume that they were once continuous, and that they have been separated by the action of the sea, and other

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other wasting causes. We perceive, indeed, nothing violent in the opinion here maintained, that all the red sand-stone of the Western Islands may be considered as one mass, occupying a broken line from Glen Elg to Cape Wrath; extending a considerable way into the interior, and presenting all varieties of outline, from the tame and flat shore to hills of all dimensions and aspects. Where the beds become vertical, they somewhat assimilate in appearance to the accompanying gneiss; and these prevailing rocks either graduate into one another, through the intervention of some of the varieties of schist and grey indurated sand-stone, or of quartz-rock; or, which sometimes happens, they abruptly alternate. The red sand-stone, too, is occasionally unconformable to the gneiss; yet little doubt can remain of the *legitimacy* of the formation, the points of connection and contiguity being of such frequent occurrence; and we cannot hesitate to regard this red sand-stone, notwithstanding its mechanical composition, as appertaining to the class of primary rocks. When followed by secondary strata, they are the conchiferous lime-stone, and the white sand-stone; which, in Scotland, succeeds to that rock. The difficulty of explaining the occasional non-conformity of the red sand-stone to the gneiss is, as Dr. M. observes, hypothetical.

'The science of geology is not yet sufficiently advanced to enable us to select an exclusive difficulty where every thing is as yet obscure; it is not entitled to pronounce on that which is an anomaly and that which is a law. Should it be determined by future investigations, that there are essential disturbances among the primary rocks, that one or more revolutions, analogous to that which appears to have occurred between the primary and secondary strata, have taken place in the former, the present difficulty will vanish, and the rule of conformity will not be found to regulate this division in nature. That such a disturbance has actually occurred in this instance, appears proved by the peculiar circumstances under which this sand-stone first appears, in those cases where it is strictly unconformable to the gneiss. The conglomerate with which it commences, proves that the latter rock has been covered, during a certain period of repose, by fragments of its own substance; while the very construction of the sand-stone also shows that it is the produce of materials which have been furnished by rocks previously existing. The magnitude of this deposit marks to a certain degree the interval of time which must have passed between the two, and proves, that even among the primary rocks, there have been long intervals of time, attended by changes and revolutions, and productive of depositions of rock, analogous to those which occur between the primary and secondary divisions. In its essential characters this sand-stone, where unconformable, may therefore be considered a kind of secondary

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rock, when compared to the primary with which it is immediately connected.'

The schistose islands present us with great uniformity of geological structure: but, though they possess a common character, they are divisible into groupes, each distinguished by a common bond of resemblance which does not pervade the remainder. Thus, the prevalence of clay-slate characterizes *Kerrera*, *Seil*, *Eysdill*, *Luing*, and *Torsa*, which may therefore be denominated the *Slate Islands*. The *quartz* subdivision comprizes *Lunga*, *Scarba*, *Jura*, and *Isla*; to which may be added *Colonsay*, *Oransa*, and the *Garveloch* isles, as quartz-rock predominates in their principal mountain-chain. Those again, in which chlorite-slate is prepollent, may be styled the *Chlorite Islands*; as *Shuna*, the *Craignish Isles*, and those of *St. Cormac*, *Gigha*, and *Cara*.

In the course of his general description of *Kerrera*, the author, with a dash of his pen, annihilates the antient capital of *Beregonium*, and the antient palace of Dunstaffnage. Of the former, indeed, not a vestige can be traced, nor do any authentic records exist; while the style of architecture belies the reputed age of the castle of Dunstaffnage: — nor does it appear that the Scotish kings ever resided in Lorn. The green and fertile soil of Kerrera, owing to the irregularity and multiplicity of its hills, is mostly devoted to pasturage. From the intrusion of the trap-rocks, its geological structure is too confused to be easily explained without reference to that of the main land. Slate, however, analogous to that of Seil and Eysdill, so well known in commerce, is obviously the fundamental rock; and it is found alternating with greywacké. At the points of junction with the trap, it is hardened, contorted, more readily reducible into fragments, and more affected by the action of the atmosphere, than in other situations. The red sand-stone and conglomerate correspond with those which, in Scotland, are so often interposed between the primary and the secondary strata. Many of the trap-veins consist of varieties of compact felspar, or clink-stone, rather than of the more ordinary green-stones and basalts; and their posteriority of formation to that of the masses of trap is occasionally apparent, since they are observed to traverse them.

Seil is in one spot so little removed from the main land, that a communication is kept up by a bridge of a single arch. 'Not only here, but throughout the whole complicated strait which separates Torsa, Luing, Shuna, and Seil, from each other, and from the main land, scenes of the most entertaining class of picturesque beauty occur. The islands, in endless

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less variety of form, are washed by winding seas, and diversified with rocks and wood, while they are enlivened by human habitations, improved cultivation, and by the countless boats and ships that navigate these straits; the varied mountains of Mull, and of the Appin and Morven lands, rising blue in the distance.'

The slate quarries of Seil, like those of Eysdill, have long been known, and their produce forms the subject of an extensive traffic: but, besides roofing-slate, Seil contains graywacké schist, and beds of a substance regarded by some as primitive green-stone, being a mixture of pale grey compact felspar with greenish horn-blend: also a schistose and a compact quartz rock, with mica-slate, and, more rarely, chlorite slate.

Eysdill, which is separated from Seil by a very narrow strait, exhibits the same composition, and may be regarded merely as a subordinate portion of its structure. *Luing* is also within three hundred yards of it, and, like it, is chiefly inhabited by labourers who are employed in the manufacture of slates. Among the peculiarities of the slate of this district, are round and inclinated masses of that substance, but devoid of the fissile property; the laminæ of the ordinary schist being incurvated around them, as those of mica encompass nodules of quartz in mica-slate. In some cases, a deviation of the parallelism of the lamination to the strata is observable: but whether it be the result of its mode of deposition, or of a concretionary arrangement, seems doubtful.

Torsa deserves to be noted chiefly because it approximates the same system of slate-strata to the main land, and because it furnishes the observer with some singular exemplifications of the weathering or decomposing of trap-veins. — The surface of *Shuna* is generally diversified with rocks, natural groves of birch and alder, and patches of cultivated and pasture-land. Its predominant strata are micaceous schist and quartz-rock, with occasional modifications of chlorite-schist and horn-blend slate; this series being above the clay-slate of Seil and Luing.

The *Garveloch Isles*, so denominated from the largest of the groupe, are characterized by deep longitudinal valleys, and by a great variety of primary lime-stone; occurring either in the form of breccia or in that of a continuous and compact stratum, of a granular texture, and of great hardness. 'The basis of the breccia is commonly of a slate-blue colour verging to purple, and is mottled or sprinkled with the white or red spots derived from the calcareous matter; while the imbedded fragments being white, yellow, and pink, a very ornamental marble is the result. It is little if at all inferior to

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many of the Italian, or antique breccias of popular celebrity. The veined specimens of the simple lime-stone are, with a different character, equally ornamental; and, according to the direction in which the veins are cut, produce varieties, resembling in disposition the well known marble of Sienna; but differing from it in colour, inasmuch as pink and dark red occupy the place of yellow and brown.'

The common bond of union between *Lunga*, *Scarba*, *Jura*, and *Isla*, is 'the prevalence of a continued line of quartz-rock, and the frequent alternations of this substance with micaceous schist, clay-slate, and graywacké.' In Lunga, argillaceous schist occupies the eastern and quartz-rock the western side, but each intermingled with other schistose substances, and the quartz extending over the largest portion of the island. The strata are traversed by numerous trap-veins in various directions.

'The details of the rocks of Scarba are seen to the greatest advantage in the deep natural section which separates it from Jura, and is the northern boundary of the strait so well known by the name of Coryvrechan; the Charybdis of Scotland, that realizes the dangers with which poetry seems in former times to have invested the Sicilian gulf. This section may be examined from the land, but the journey is toilsome and rugged, nor is the whole so obvious as from sea. The geologist will therefore be pleased to know that even the terrible Coryvrechan has its periods of repose; when he may, with due caution, make use of his boat in viewing this instructive and magnificent shore. The natural grandeur of the objects is not a little increased by the circumstances of terror with which the very name is attended, and by the certainty of the impending danger; the periodical and inevitable return of which threatens at every instant, him who may have miscalculated his time, or who may linger away his minutes on rocks more dangerous than those of the Syrens.

'The circumstances that constitute the dangers of this sound are, in a less degree, to be seen in many places throughout the narrow passage so much frequented by ships, which lies between Jura and Scarba, and the main land. They arise from the constraint which the tide-wave undergoes in a narrow and rocky channel, and are displayed in a succession of currents and eddies that render the steerage of a vessel exceedingly difficult in calms, and produce, in gales of wind, a short and dangerous breaking sea. The flood-tide runs through the gulf of Scarba from the eastward, being a branch of the great stream which is here directed to the north; and as it is much obstructed in the passage of the Coryvrechan, its rapidity is very considerable. This has been computed at twelve miles or more in an hour; an estimate which is evidently extravagant, and perhaps nearly double the actual velocity. The ebb has of course the reverse direction; but the stream is less swift, and the agitation of the water is consequently much less violent

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and dangerous. This agitation is chiefly produced by a rock of a pyramidal form, rising with a steep aclivity from the bottom, which is here about 600 feet deep, to within about ninety feet of the surface, and diverting the course of the rapid tide already described. The stream being thus obstructed, assumes numerous intricate directions, which, interfering with each other, cause the water to break with considerable violence. If there be a fresh breeze, and more particularly if the motion of the wind is opposed to that of the sea, this agitation is increased to a frightful degree; frightful at least to a seaman who knows its dangers, although, to a landsman, it may seem less terrible than the long surging roll of the Atlantic wave. It is this breaking sea which constitutes the real danger of the Coryvrechan, as, when considerable, it will in an instant sink a vessel, unless every thing is made secure on deck. The impulse of the stream against the rock above described, produces also a long and rapid counter-current or eddy on the side of Scarba; which, returning into the principal stream in an opposite course, causes the chief gyration, or the whirlpool; the danger of which is comparatively trifling, since the only effect of it is to prevent the steering of a vessel: the real danger is in the breaking of the sea. Independently of the principal whirlpool, there are numerous others in this stream, as in all similar situations; which, however dangerous to a boat, are of little consequence to a vessel, particularly if there be wind. All this motion and turbulence vanish at the change of tide; so that even small boats navigate this sound with safety by watching the termination of ebb or flood; there being an hour or more of repose in neap, and half that quantity in spring tides.'

The disposition of the quartz-rock in Scarba, and its alternations, will be best apprehended by consulting the diagram: but the geological reader will not overlook the author's general reasonings on the contortion of strata, (which he attributes to mechanical disturbance,) and on the premature conclusions which have been adopted concerning the relative positions of the principal rocks.

Jura is reckoned about twenty miles in length, and eight in breadth at the northern end. It is very hilly, and encompassed by rocky and precipitous shores. Little of the soil is adapted to the plough, and black cattle form the staple of the island. Its highest portion lies towards the south, where it rises into four distinct hills; three of which are known by the name of the *Paps*, and are nearly of an equal elevation, being between two and three thousand feet above the level of the sea. From the top of one of these heights, the spectator may command an extensive view of the northern islands and main land, and a complete display of the relations and dispositions of the rocks which form the island itself. That the latter abounds in vipers, or gives harbour to the *fillan*, are

assertions

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assertions which have been carelessly repeated, without any foundation in truth. Mr. Pennant circulated the former only as a popular report: but both he and Dr. Walker appear to have lent their credence to the latter. — In the adjoining sea, the present author caught a new species of *Petromyzon*, which he denominates *P. Juræ*, and thus characterizes: '*Ordinibus dentium plurimis; quatuor majoribus obtusis prope fauces; corpore non annulato; pinna dorsali posteriore caudæ adherenti.*' For farther particulars, we must refer to the description and plate. He likewise notices a non-descript *Salpa*.

'I had occasion,' he says, 'to remark of this animal, that, like the Medusæ and analogous tribes, it cannot bear to be confined in a limited portion of water; as it died, even in the ship's bucket, in less than half an hour; a very remarkable circumstance in the economy of these imperfect animals. Hitherto this genus is only known as the inhabitant of hot climates and of the Mediterranean sea. I found it in great abundance in the harbours of Canna and Campbeltown; rising to the surface in calm weather, and crowding the water, as the Medusæ often do at the same time of the year. It may be called *Salpa? moniliformis*, and defined as follows: '*S. Ovato-lanceolata, ano fusco, absque appendice terminali.*'

A very masterly disquisition ensues on the luminous appearance of the sea at night, deducing the phænomenon from living animals and animal matter diffused in the ocean. The enumeration of luciferous genera and species is far more extensive than some of our readers might anticipate: but we cannot enter on the details without protracting our report to a most unmeasured length; and the same apology must be offered for passing in silence some pertinent remarks on the natural history of the herring.

The thickness of the quartz-rock, which figures so conspicuously in Jura, is in many places 2200 feet; and the principal variations in the composition are either conglomerates, or transitions to mica-slate or to graywacké. The eastern shore is mostly formed of schists of different descriptions, among which the graywacké presents every transition from a coarse conglomerate to fine slate; the whole traversed by numerous and sometimes very large quartz veins. The trap-veins also of this island are remarkable for their ample dimensions and continuous extent. Among the rare mineral substances occasionally found in the beds of chlorite schist, are crystals of chlorite, of considerable size, analogous to those which accompany the garnets of Piedmont. — The author's notices of the quartz-rock of Scotland, a subject scarcely touched by any preceding writer, have strong claims on the attention of every geological student: but we cannot now enter on the details.

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The extreme length of *Isla* is twenty-five miles, and its greatest breadth about twenty. It is more distinguished by the quantity of its alluvia than by the beauty of its scenery; and it affords a striking example of what may be effected by the adoption of rational schemes of improvement.

'The point of the Rinns is remarkable for the extreme violence and rapidity of the tides which run past it; scarcely less violent and fearful than the stream of Coryvrechan, and attended with currents even more difficult to explain. In the most remarkable case that occurs here, a narrow channel is formed between the body of the island and the two small islets Chenzie and Oersa, and in this strait the time of the ebb is ten hours and three quarters, that of the flood being but one and a quarter; while, on the outside of these islands, the twelve hours are, as in the open sea, equally divided between the ebb and the flood.'

Here Dr. M. takes occasion to offer some remarks on the general irregularities and intricacy of the tides in the Western Islands, originating in local and adventitious causes. His geological survey of the island under review is conducted with his usual minuteness: but it may suffice to observe that the most traceable strata are those of quartz-rock, with various alternations of clay-slate, graywacké-slate, gneiss, and mica-schist; and that the extent of the lime-stone, which principally occupies the middle region and is mostly of a schistose character, is not easily assigned. Another rock of a singular texture is also indicated. 'In respect to composition, it is a micaceous schist, containing imbedded fragments of granite and quartz-rock of variable magnitude; and it may with propriety be called a primary conglomerate.'—Trap-veins, composed chiefly of basalt, are numerous, conspicuous, and persistent. Those of quartz are sometimes intermixed with a great quantity of oxidulous iron, disposed in thin reticulated laminæ: but, with regard to the alleged veins of clay-slate, it will be found, on careful examination, 'that they are portions of beds which have undergone the contortion and elongation so frequent in micaceous schist and gneiss, and are thus drawn out into forms slightly resembling real veins.'—The independent minerals are chlorite, lead, (which was worked at different periods, but is at present abandoned,) and some modifications of iron-ores: but the existence of quicksilver, cobalt, emery, and coal, seems to rest on very questionable reports.

[*To be concluded in the next Review.*]

ART.

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ART. VI. *Virginius:* A Tragedy. In Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By James Sheridan Knowles, Esq. Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway. 1820.

A GOOD acting tragedy is a very difficult production. We are inclined to think that, although an author must obviously be possessed of ample poetic genius for such a work, yet it is possible for a poet to be too highly gifted in the general qualities of his art for the particular excellence here indispensable. A calculation of stage-effect does not, perhaps, exactly accord with the undisturbed exercise of the highest powers of genius. We should be led beyond our time and limits on this occasion, if we descended into a particular proof of the justness of this remark: but we certainly feel, or fancy, that we could establish the hypothesis in question by a variety of deduction. The fact, that a few (perhaps one or two) gifted individuals have existed, who, without effort or consciousness of the sort, have hit the precise degree of imagination and reality, of *beau idéal* and actual copying from nature, which must be mingled and brought out together, to constitute dramatic perfection; this extraordinary fact, we say, will not prove that it is not generally necessary for a theatrical writer to have a very extensive knowlege of the properties and peculiarities of *representation*. To judge how a particular incident or situation will appear in the acting, — to know how such and such a sentiment, or phrase rather, will *tell*, before an audience, — will require a personal attendance on stage-exhibitions, and a reflection on the subject which few unfledged dramatists can be supposed to command. Nay, so essential are this knowlege and this power to theatrical success, that the entire possession of them will atone for the absence of many loftier qualities.

Although this fact is more manifestly true in comedy than in tragedy, yet in the latter also it is a *very* important point. Mrs. Inchbald has observed, with her usual acuteness, how pre-eminently this dramatic calculation has been displayed in the "*Cure for the Heart-Ache*" of Mr. Morton; a thing, we may add, to the nothingness of which the representation actually gave entity. In a due degree, this effect is observable in many popular plays. Advancing from the lowest arena to the very neighbourhood of the highest, we come to an application of this reasoning to tragedy, and to the excellent stock-play of *Douglas*. Here, assuredly, is no *very* transcendent, no *very* overwhelming superiority of poetry: but here is poetical and at the same time natural language; here are an admirable man-

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agement of plot, and a most interesting gradual developement of story. Consequently, with its highly respectable degree of poetic merit, *Douglas*, having these other approaches to perfection, must always fix and delight the attention.

In the same class, but at a very aweful distance,

"*Proximus huic, longo sed proximus intervallo,*"

appears *Virginius*. That it is a good acting play, experience has most satisfactorily shewn, and that it has poetical passages no reader can doubt: but its great and peculiar merit is its adaptation to the stage. Written, indeed, too exclusively (as it would appear) for the appropriate representation of one character, it will ever have the *stain of monotony* on it: it will for ever be *Virginius*, and nothing else, accidental, or subservient to Virginius. *Appius Claudius* is as good for nothing in mimetic quality as in morals; he is a walking, or rather stalking, guilty gentleman. *Dentatus* is the Menenius of old. Good acting has raised some of the other characters also out of their native insignificance. We must not, however, be misinterpreted as being blind to the activity and energy of this drama. There is a beautiful little love-scene in it; and altogether it has had few fellows in our degenerate days.

The author's own statement respecting the last act is so peculiar as to deserve quotation. In reviewing an acted play, we are under no prohibition, from either taste or good nature, to conceal the catastrophe.

'I owe the public an apology for the last act; and this is my apology — History gives two accounts of the manner of Appius's death: one, that he committed suicide; the other, that he was destroyed privately by the Tribunes. Had I selected for my catastrophe the former incident, the character of the tyrant had stood too prominent; by adopting the latter, I should have violated the respect due to a Christian audience. After having excited such an interest for Virginius, it would have been indecent to represent him in the attitude of taking the law into his own hands. I therefore adopted the idea of his destroying Appius in a fit of temporary insanity, which gives the catastrophe the air of a visitation of Providence.'

We cannot imagine that this 'air of a visitation of Providence' would ever have been discovered by the audience; and we are unable to resist the feeling of the similarity of this reason to an 'air' from the Bay of Dublin. Surely, it is somewhat Hibernian.

After what we have said as to the leading features of the drama before us, our readers will easily perceive the difficulty, if not the impossibility, of our making such a selection

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tion for their perusal as will substantiate our praise of the play. We must try, however, to do justice to the author, and to ourselves; and for this object we shall quote a good part of a scene which, we think, will manifest the grounds for the whole of our opinion.

The suborned evidence as to the birth of Virginia having been given by the female slave of Claudius, Numitorius asks whether she will swear to it; and the answer interposed by Mr. Macready, who personates Virginius, is delivered by him with an effect which electrifies the audience, who no doubt have made an application of it to an important question now before the public. Mr. Macready, indeed, has advanced his reputation more by the performance of this play than by all his former efforts. We now give the passage at length.

'*Numitorius.* Will she swear she is her child?
'*Virginius.* (*Starting forward.*) To be sure she will — a most wise question that!
Is she not his slave! Will his tongue lie for him —
Or his hand steal — or the finger of his hand
Beckon, or point, or shut, or open for him?
To ask him if she'll swear! — Will she walk or run,
Sing, dance, or wag her head; do any thing
That is most easy done? She'll as soon swear!
What mockery it is to have one's life
In jeopardy by such a bare-fac'd trick!
Is it to be endur'd? I do protest
Against her oath!
'*Appius.* No law in Rome, Virginius,
Seconds you. If she swear the girl's her child,
The evidence is good, unless confronted
By better evidence. Look you to that,
Virginius. I shall take the woman's oath.
'*Virginia.* Icilius!
'*Icilius.* Fear not, love; a thousand oaths
Will answer her.
'*Appius.* You swear the girl's your child,
And that you sold her to Virginius' wife,
Who pass'd her for her own. Is that your oath?
'*Slave.* It is my oath.
'*Appius.* Your answer now, Virginius.
'*Virginius.* Here it is!
[*Brings Virginia forward.*]
Is this the daughter of a slave? I know
'Tis not with men, as shrubs and trees, that by
The shoot you know the rank and order of
The stem. Yet who from such a stem would look
For such a shoot. My witnesses are these —
The relatives and friends of Numitoria,
Who saw her, ere Virginia's birth, sustain

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The burden which a mother bears, nor feels
The weight, with longing for the sight of it.
Here are the ears that listen'd to her sighs
In nature's hour of labour, which subsides
In the embrace of joy — the hands, that when
The day first look'd upon the infant's face,
And never look'd so pleas'd, help'd them up to it,
And bless'd her for a blessing — Here, the eyes
That saw her lying at the generous
And sympathetic fount, that at her cry
Sent forth a stream of liquid living pearl
To cherish her enamell'd veins. The lie
Is most unfruitful then, that takes the flower —
The very flower our bed connubial grew —
To prove its barrenness! Speak for me, friends;
Have I not spoke the truth.

'*Women and Citizens.* You have, Virginius.

'*Appius.* Silence! keep silence there. — No more of that!
You're very ready for a tumult, citizens.

[*Troops appear behind.*]

Lictors, make way to let these troops advance!
We have had a taste of your forbearance, masters,
And wish not for another.

'*Virginius.* Troops in the Forum!

'*Appius.* Virginius, have you spoken?

'*Virginius.* If you have heard me,
I have; if not, I'll speak again.

'*Appius.* You need not,
Virginius; I have evidence to give,
Which, should you speak a hundred times again,
Would make your pleading vain.

'*Virginius.* Your hand, Virginia:
Stand close to me. (*Aside.*)

'*Appius.* My conscience will not let me
Be silent. 'Tis notorious to you all,
That Claudius' father, at his death, declar'd me
The guardian of his son — This cheat has long
Been known to me. I know the girl is not
Virginius' daughter.

'*Virginius.* Join your friends, Icilius,
And leave Virginia to my care. (*Aside.*)

'*Appius.* "The justice
I should have done my client, unrequir'd,
Now cited by him, how shall I refuse?"

'*Virginius.* Don't tremble, girl! don't tremble. (*Aside.*)

'*Appius.* Virginius,
I feel for you; but, though you were my father,
The majesty of justice should be sacred —
Claudius must take Virginia home with him!

'*Virginius.* And if he must, I should advise him, Appius,
To take her home in time, before his guardian

Complete

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Complete the violation, which his eyes
Already have begun — Friends! Fellow-citizens!
Look not on Claudius — Look on your Decemvir!
He is the master claims Virginia!
The tongues that told him she was not my child
Are these — the costly charms he cannot purchase,
Except by making her the slave of Claudius,
His client, his purveyor, that caters for
His pleasures — markets for him — picks, and scents,
And tastes, that he may banquet — serves him up
His sensual feast, and is not now asham'd,
In the open, common street, before your eyes —
Frighting your daughters' and your matrons' cheeks
With blushes they ne'er thought to meet — to help him
To the honour of a Roman maid! my child!
Who now clings to me, as you see, as if
This second Tarquin had already coil'd
His arms around her. Look upon her, Romans,
Befriend her! succour her! see her not polluted
Before her father's eyes! — He is but one.
Tear her from Appius and his lictors, while
She is unstain'd — Your hands! your hands! your hands!

'*Citizens.* They are yours, Virginius.

'*Appius.* Keep the people back —
Support my lictors, soldiers! Seize the girl,
And drive the people back.

'*Icilius.* Down with the slaves!

'[*The people make a show of resistance, but, upon the advancing of the soldiers, retreat, and leave Icilius, Virginius, and his daughter, &c. in the hands of Appius and his party.*]

Deserted! — Cowards! Traitors! "Let me free
But for a moment! I relied on you;
Had I relied upon myself alone
I had kept them still at bay! I kneel to you —
Let me but loose a moment, if 'tis only
To rush upon your swords!"

'*Virginius.* Icilius, peace!
You see how 'tis, we are deserted, left
Alone by our friends, surrounded by our enemies,
Nerveless and helpless.*

'*Appius.* Separate them, lictors!

'*Virginius.* Let them forbear awhile, I pray you, Appius:
It is not very easy. Though her arms
Are tender, yet the hold is strong, by which
She grasps me, Appius — Forcing them will hurt them,
They'll soon unclasp themselves. Wait but a little —
You know you're sure of her!

'* *Appius.* Away with him!

'*Icilius.* Virginia! Tyrant! My Virginia!

'*Appius.* Away with him, &c. [*Icilius is borne off.*]

'*Appius.*

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'*Appius.* I have not time
To idle with thee, give her to my lictors.
'*Virginius.* Appius, I pray you wait! If she is not
My child, she hath been like a child to me
For fifteen years. If I am not her father,
I have been like a father to her, Appius,
For even such a time. "They that have liv'd
So long a time together, in so near
And dear society, may be allowed
A little time for parting." Let me take
The maid aside, I pray you, and confer
A moment with her nurse; perhaps she'll give me
Some token, will unloose a tie, so twin'd
And knotted round my heart, that if you break it
My heart breaks with it.
'*Appius.* Have your wish. Be brief!
Lictors! look to them.
'*Virginia.* Do you go from me!
Do you leave! Father! Father!
'*Virginius.* No, my child;
No, my Virginia — come along with me.
'*Virginia.* Will you not leave me? Will you take me with you?
Will you take me home again? O, bless you, bless you!
My father! my dear father! Art thou not
My father!
'[*Virginius, perfectly at a loss what to do, looks anxiously around the Forum; at length his eye falls on a butcher's stall, with a knife upon it.*]
'*Virginius.* This way, my child — No, no! I am not going
To leave thee, my Virginia! I'll not leave thee.
'*Appius.* "Keep back the people, soldiers! Let them not
Approach Virginius! Keep the people back!"
[*Virginius secures the knife.*]
Well, have you done?
'*Virginius.* Short time for converse, Appius;
But I have.
'*Appius* I hope you are satisfied.
'*Virginius.* I am —
I am — that she is my daughter!
'*Appius.* Take her, lictors!
'[*Virginia shrieks, and falls half dead upon her father's shoulder.*]
'*Virginius.* Another moment, pray you. Bear with we
A little — 'Tis my last embrace. 'T wont try
Your patience beyond bearing, if you're a man!
Lengthen it as I may I cannot make it
Long! My dear child! My dear Virginia; [*kissing her.*]
There is one only way to save thine honour —
'Tis this! —
'[*Stabs her, and draws out the knife. Icilius breaks from the soldiers that held him, and catches her.*]
Lo! Appius! with this innocent blood,
I do

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I do devote thee to th' infernal gods!
Make way there!
'*Appius.* Stop him! Seize him!
'*Virginius.* If they dare
To tempt the desperate weapon that is madden'd
With drinking my daughter's blood, why let them: Thus
It rushes in amongst them. Way there! Way!
[*Exit through the soldiers.*']

This, we conceive, would be fully sufficient to establish the degree of merit to which the author has laid claim as a successful dramatic writer, in the judgment of any rational critic who saw the play *represented*; and he who reads, we think, must also admire, in due degree.

ART. VII. *Lectures chiefly on the Dramatic Literature of the Age of Elizabeth.* Delivered at the Surry Institution. By Wm. Hazlitt. 8vo. pp. 356. 12s. Boards. Stodart and Steuart. 1820.

THREE distinct works of Mr. Hazlitt were recently noticed by us with applause (Rev. for May last); and this fourth set of lectures will not derogate from his reputation, nor disappoint the confidence of his many admirers. He presents himself as before; he persists in the swimming walk and spangled shoes, and pushes elegance of step almost to affectation; he advances in the same luxurious dress, in which the flowers of fancy, the jewels of allusion, the tinsel of conceit, and the ribbands of sentiment, mingle in gay embroidery, with too much ostentation to be either entirely unheeded or entirely approved. Like a saint of catholic mythology, his head seems girt with a nimbus of splendor, which flings on all the objects in his path a picturesque and magic illumination, but which endangers his being mistaken for an unsubstantial visionary pageant. Solidity, indeed, is neither his element nor his object. Preferring eloquence to argument, discrimination to judgment, effervescence to compactness, and sparkling to repose, he is rather intent on displaying than on appreciating his characters and their productions. This perpetual aim at dazzling is no doubt better adapted for oral delivery than for closet-perusal, and constitutes perhaps in a course of public readings an excellence with which in a series of dissertations we might be disposed to quarrel.

The topic of these lectures is to eulogize the writers, and especially the dramatic writers, who flourished during the age of Elizabeth; by which name the author proposes to designate the entire interval that elapsed between the Reformation and the

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the death of Charles I. We should have preferred to denominate this period the Age of James the First. That king was a careful and generous patron of literature, a promoter of external peace and internal culture, himself a voluminous author, and a great encourager of taste and learning among his nobility. He powerfully influenced the love of study, and contributed to nationalize liberal pursuits. Elizabeth, on the other hand, though a good scholar, was a tasteless writer, and not a generous friend to literary excellence; and, if she gained the approbation of the religious world, it was because she dissembled so well as to deceive. Her favour was sometimes awarded by her love, and sometimes by her ambition, but was mostly unaccompanied with either affection or friendship: she had an intolerant, an unfeeling, and a perfidious soul; and she has been over-praised by the candour of her two female biographers, Mademoiselle Keralio and Miss Aikin.—A farther reason may be alleged for conceding to James I. the honour of designating his age; viz. that under him shone its brightest constellation; and that the translation of the Bible, which his Bishops published, has become a canon of language, and served first to fix an idiom previously versatile and floating.

Mr. Hazlitt's first lecture, which is introductory, gives a general view of the authors to be discussed, and justly observes that, in the time of Bacon, more intellect of every kind was displayed in England than any succeeding epoch can produce. We are acquainted only with the great writers of old times, but we know the many *writerlings* of our own; and hence we presume a vast increase in the number of those who cultivate literature. Yet, when the torch of investigation is carried into the obscurer recesses of the past, it soon becomes doubtful whether modern times have much diffused the passion for authorship, and whether the crop of insignificant writers was not formerly as abundant as it is now. When another couple of centuries have elapsed, how few of the names will be popularly known which illustrated the age of George III.? On this subject, Mr. Hazlitt speaks well and truly:

'The modern sciolist *stultifies* all understanding but his own, and that which he conceives like his own. We think, in this age of reason and consummation of philosophy, because we knew nothing twenty or thirty years ago, and began to think then for the first time in our lives, that the rest of mankind were in the same predicament, and never knew any thing till we did; that the world had grown old in sloth and ignorance, had dreamt out its long minority of five thousand years in a dozing state, and that it first began to wake out of sleep, to rouse itself, and look about it, startled by the light of our unexpected discoveries, and the noise we made about them. Strange error of our infatuated self-

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self-love! Because the clothes we remember to have seen worn when we were children are now out of fashion, and our grandmothers were then old women, we conceive with magnanimous continuity of reasoning, that it must have been much worse three hundred years before, and that grace, youth, and beauty are things of modern date — as if nature had ever been old, or the sun had first shone on our folly and presumption. Because, in a word, the last generation, when tottering off the stage, were not so active, so sprightly, and so promising as we were, we begin to imagine, that people formerly must have crawled about in a feeble, torpid state, like flies in winter, in a sort of dim twilight of the understanding; "nor can we think what thoughts they could conceive," in the absence of all those topics that so agreeably enliven and diversify our conversation and literature, mistaking the imperfection of our knowledge for the defect of their organs, as if it was necessary for us to have a register and certificate of their thoughts, or as if, because they did not see with our eyes, hear with our ears, and understand with our understandings, they could hear, see, and understand nothing. A falser inference could not be drawn, nor one more contrary to the maxims and cautions of a wise humanity. "Think," says Shakespear, the prompter of good and true feelings, "there's livers out of Britain." So there have been thinkers, and great and sound ones, before our time. They had the same capacities that we have, sometimes greater motives for their exertion, and, for the most part, the same subject-matter to work upon. What we learn from nature, we may hope to do as well as they; what we learn from them, we may in general expect to do worse. — What is, I think, as likely as any thing to cure us of this overweening admiration of the present, and unmingled contempt for past times, is the looking at the finest old pictures; at Raphael's heads, at Titian's faces, at Claude's landscapes.'

The second lecture treats of Shakspeare's contemporaries, Lyly, Marlowe, Heywood, Middleton, and Rowley. The tragedy of Ferrex and Porrex is here ascribed to Lord Buckhurst: but he was avowedly assisted by Thomas Norton, and had probably purchased of that writer the permission to appropriate the merit of the poem. This is strongly intimated in the collection of Norton's works printed in 1569, which consists principally of loyal pamphlets, the most remarkable being *ane Detectioun of the Duings of Marie Quene of Scots.*

We had occasion not long ago * to throw out the suspicion that Christopher Marlowe is but a borrowed designation of the great Shakspeare, who disappears from all biographical research just at the moment when Marlowe first comes on the stage; and who re-appears in his proper name in 1592, when a strange story was put in circulation that Marlowe had been

* Article on Drake's *Shakspeare and his Times*, Rev. vol. lxxxix. P. 357.

recently

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recently assassinated with his own sword, which may be allegorically true. A song first published as the composition of Marlowe has been comprehended in Shakspeare's own edition of *The Passionate Pilgrim*; and the habitual resemblance of style between these writers is striking even to Mr. Hazlitt, who does not suspect their identity. Let us, however, quote what he says on this topic:

'We have heard much of "Marlowe's mighty line," and this play (*The Lascivious Queen*) furnishes frequent instances of it. There are a number of single lines that seem struck out in the heat of a glowing fancy, and leave a track of golden fire behind them. The following are a few that might be given.

'"I know he is not dead; I know proud death
Durst not behold such sacred majesty."
* * * * * * *

'"Hang both your greedy ears upon my lips,
Let them devour my speech, suck in my breath."
* * * * * * *

——'"from discontent grows treason,
And on the stalk of treason, death."
* * * * * * *

'"Tyrants swim safest in a crimson flood."
* * * * * * *

'The two following lines—

'"Oh! I grow dull, and the cold hand of sleep
Hath thrust his icy fingers in my breast"—

are the same as those in King John—

'"And none of you will bid the winter come
To thrust his icy fingers in my maw."

And again the Moor's exclamation,

'"Now by the proud complexion of my cheeks,
Ta'en from the kisses of the amorous sun"—

is the same as Cleopatra's—

'"But I that am with Phœbus' amorous pinches black," &c.

'Eleazar's sarcasm,

'——"These dignities,
Like poison, make men swell; this rat's bane honour,
Oh, 'tis so sweet! they'll lick it till they burst"—

shews the utmost virulence of smothered spleen; and his concluding strain of malignant exultation has been but tamely imitated by Young's Zanga.

'"Now tragedy, thou minion of the night,
Rhamnusia's pewfellow *, to thee I'll sing,
Upon a harp made of dead Spanish bones,

'* This expression seems to be ridiculed by Falstaff.'

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The proudest instrument the world affords:
To thee that never blushest, though thy cheeks
Are full of blood, O Saint Revenge, to thee
I consecrate my murders, all my stabs," &c.

'It may be worth while to observe, for the sake of the curious, that many of Marlowe's most sounding lines consist of monosyllables, or nearly so. The repetition of Eleazar's taunt to the Cardinal, retorting his own words upon him, "Spaniard or Moor, the saucy slave shall die"—may perhaps have suggested Falconbridge's spirited reiteration of the phrase—"And hang a calf's skin on his recreant limbs."'

Faustus, an admirable drama, — *The Jew of Malta*, a good one, — and *Edward the Second*, to which on the authority of others Mr. Hazlitt awards the preference, are severally analyzed. In this last play, first appeared the song which Shakspeare has claimed, and to which Sir Walter Raleigh wrote an answer. To this piece, therefore, more than to any other of those called after Marlowe, attaches the suspicion of its being the work of Shakspeare. As the question concerning the identity of these master-dramatists is curious, and, if established, would throw new light on a veiled portion of the life of Shakspeare, it may be worth while farther to observe, that the name of Marlowe appears early to have been considered as fictitious; and that it was borrowed successively, after the pretended death of Marlowe, by several authors. Thus in 1595, Henry Petowe published a translation by Marlowe, from the Greek of Coluthus, of Helen's Rape; and in 1599 a translation of Ovid's Elegies, probably made by Golding, and printed with (we think) the false date *Middleburg*, was ascribed to Marlowe, who had now been dead seven years, because the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Bishop of London, on account of its indecency, had ordered it to be burnt in Stationers' Hall. This severity occasioned a second edition. Ben Jonson and Drayton have mentioned Marlowe, but not in a manner that implies personal acquaintance; and, as the conduct of Marlowe had not the purest reputation, those in the secret might well be disposed to affect a belief in his personal reality, in order that the errors of Shakspeare's youth might be associated only with the name under which they were perhaps incurred.

Lecture III. examines Marston, Chapman, Deckar, and Webster, and brings out some fine passages of writers whom it would be hopeless to revive in their integrity.

The fourth lecture relates to Beaumont and Fletcher, Ben Jonson, Ford, and Massinger. It were well to attempt a separation of Fletcher's plays from those of Beaumont; who was indeed a gentleman of fortune, ambitious of dramatic celebrity, and passionately fond of Fletcher's somewhat licentious

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tious society, but who probably contributed the smaller and less permanently valuable portion to the collection of their joint labours. Beaumont died at the age of thirty; and the Masque of *Gray's Inn Gentlemen* is exclusively his work: but by far the greater number of the plays are solely the composition of Fletcher, who lived to be fifty years old, and passed a large part of his time in authorship.

Of Ben Jonson it is properly observed that his *serious* are superior to his *comic* productions: he owed his success rather to sense and industry than to genius; and these qualities agree better with the grave and severe than with the light and gay efforts of the Muse. His fault is that he cannot let go his hold of an idea, even when the insisting on it becomes tiresome to others. Here *Sejanus* is ranked as his best tragedy, and is justly preferred to his *Catiline's Conspiracy.*

Massinger is so much more modern than the other writers noticed in this lecture, that they do not groupe well together. A marked difference of public taste had already overspread the theatrical audiences, and given a new tact to appreciation. Dramatic literature, especially of the comic sort, requires to be treated in chronological order; its value depending so materially on its communicating the history of manners. Much is said of *Sir Giles Overreach*, in the *New Way to pay Old Debts*; a play of which the plot and manners are comic, but the catastrophe is tragic, and this produces an unwelcome effect at the theatre.

The fifth lecture assembles detached remarks on some single plays of peculiar titles. The *dramatis personæ* of *Microcosmus*, in which occur Nature, Janus, the four elements, good and evil genii, Love, Fear, Conscience, the five senses, and every thing that it is in reality impossible to personify, is a curious specimen of decaying taste.

Lecture VI. examines poems not dramatic, by Drayton, Daniel, Sidney, Drummond, and others. Something is said about Spenser's *Faery Queen*, but too little for its importance; and Fairfax's *Tasso*, a yet finer specimen of versification, is wholly overlooked. The criticism should have been confined to the drama, or expanded in stricter proportion.

The seventh lecture comments on the great prose-writers, as Bacon, Sir Thomas Brown, and Jeremy Taylor. This part of the subject again is hurried over: but, as it gives opportunity for the display of the author's eloquence on new topics, though he is less *at home* on them than in the drama we shall borrow from it an extract of great merit.

'Lord Bacon has been called (and justly) one of the wisest of mankind. The word *wisdom* characterises him more than any other.

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other. It was not that he did so much himself to advance the knowledge of man or nature, as that he saw what others had done to advance it, and what was still wanting to its full accomplishment. He stood upon the high 'vantage ground of genius and learning; and traced, "as in a map the voyager his course," the long devious march of human intellect, its elevations and depressions, its windings and its errors. He had a "large discourse of reason, looking before and after." He had made an exact and extensive survey of human acquirements: he took the gauge and meter, the depths and soundings of the human capacity. He was master of the comparative anatomy of the mind of man, of the balance of power among the different faculties. He had thoroughly investigated and carefully registered the steps and processes of his own thoughts, with their irregularities and failures, their liabilities to wrong conclusions, either from the difficulties of the subject, or from moral causes, from prejudice, indolence, vanity, from conscious strength or weakness; and he applied this self-knowledge on a mighty scale to the general advances or retrograde movements of the aggregate intellect of the world. He knew well what the goal and crown of moral and intellectual power was, how far men had fallen short of it, and how they came to miss it. He had an instantaneous perception of the quantity of truth or good in any given system; and of the analogy of any given result or principle to others of the same kind scattered through nature or history. His observations take in a larger range, have more profundity from the fineness of his tact, and more comprehension from the extent of his knowledge, along the line of which his imagination ran with equal celerity and certainty, than any other person's, whose writings I know. He however seized upon these results, rather by intuition than by inference: he knew them in their mixed modes, and combined effects rather than by abstraction or analysis, as he explains them to others, not by resolving them into their component parts and elementary principles, so much as by illustrations drawn from other things operating in like manner, and producing similar results; or as he himself has finely expressed it, "by the same footsteps of nature treading or printing upon several subjects or matters." He had great sagacity of observation, solidity of judgment and scope of fancy; in this resembling Plato and Burke, that he was a popular philosopher and a philosophical declaimer. His writings have the gravity of prose with the fervour and vividness of poetry. His sayings have the effect of axioms, are at once striking and self-evident. He views objects from the greatest height, and his reflections acquire a sublimity in proportion to their profundity, as in deep wells of water we see the sparkling of the highest fixed stars. The chain of thought reaches to the centre, and ascends the brightest heaven of invention. Reason in him works like an instinct: and his slightest suggestions carry the force of conviction. His opinions are judicial. His induction of particulars is alike wonderful for learning and vivacity, for curiosity and dignity, and an all-pervading intellect binds the whole together in a graceful and

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pleasing form. His style is equally sharp and sweet, flowing and pithy, condensed and expansive, expressing volumes in a sentence, or amplifying a single thought into pages of rich, glowing, and delightful eloquence. He had great liberality from seeing the various aspects of things, (there was nothing bigotted or intolerant or exclusive about him,) and yet he had firmness and decision from feeling their weight and consequences. His character was then an amazing insight into the limits of human knowledge and acquaintance with the land-marks of human intellect, so as to trace its past history or point out the path to future enquiries, but when he quits the ground of contemplation of what others have done or left undone to project himself into future discoverers, he becomes quaint and fantastic, instead of original. His strength was in reflection, not in production: he was the surveyor, not the builder of the fabric of science. He had not strictly the constructive faculty. He was the principal pioneer in the march of modern philosophy, and has completed the education and discipline of the mind for the acquisition of truth, by explaining all the impediments or furtherances that can be applied to it or cleared out of its way. In a word, he was one of the greatest men this country has to boast, and his name deserves to stand, where it is generally placed, by the side of those of our greatest writers, whether we consider the variety, the strength or splendour of his faculties, for ornament or use.

'His Advancement of Learning is his greatest work; and next to that, I like the Essays; for the Novum Organum is more laboured and less effectual than it might be.'

The Characters of Bishop Hall deserved but have escaped notice; and something ought surely to have been introduced into this chapter relative to the state of the historic style, and of parliamentary eloquence. Several authors also should have been enumerated who excelled not in style but in matter, who employed learning to come at truth, and who arranged the rubbish of erudition into stepping-stones across the river Lethe.

In the eighth and concluding lecture, Mr. Hazlitt compares the antient with modern literature, and contrasts the German theatre with that of the age of James I. This concluding speculation is eked out with borrowed matter, (even though it be Mr. Hazzlitt borrowing from himself,) and is hardly worthy to form the summing up and peroration of so brilliant a series of declamations.

Much as we admire the superior talents of Mr. Hazlitt, we think that they are not inexhaustible, and that already something of repetition is discernible in his successive works; a tendency to walk to and fro in the same path, though trampling perhaps on other flowers, and ever indicating new fruits; yet surrounded by the same amphitheatre of hedge, and in view of the same statues of the dramatists. It is better to complete

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complete in a single book the one subject which has been created with most success, than to embellish many books with fragments of this same subject. We exhort the author to recast his several sets of readings into a single, more extensive, and more proportionate course of *Lectures on the English Drama*; and not to mingle with it, in an incomplete form, accounts of other branches of literature which deserve a broader and deeper survey.

ART. VIII. *The Abbot.* By the Author of "Waverley." 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

JUAN TIMONEDA, a Valencian, and author of *Patranuello*, first introduced the species of composition which from his time has been called "a Novel;" and, like Snug the joiner, when he took the friendly precaution of assuring the ladies that he was not a real lion, the Spaniard had the complaisance to give the following hint to his readers: "As this work is intended solely for pastime and recreation, imagine not that it is real truth, for by our humble wit and lowly capacity the greater part thereof hath been feigned and composed." The writer of *The Monastery* and *The Abbot*, however, needs not offer any such premonition; for reason neither sleeps nor slumbers at her post while we peruse them, but is perpetually giving us those jogs and shakes, which summon us from the dreams of fancy to the dull realities and sober certainties of existence. We endeavour to journey with the author among the scenes of his fiction, to live with the characters by whose agency it is carried on, to mingle in their groupes, to participate in their distresses, to enjoy their frolics, and to relish their humours: but all this requires no slight effort of abstraction; and we find that to be amused or delighted is by no means an act of volition. Having made this avowal, we must add the confession that still we are not without feelings akin to envy, when we contemplate the multitude of readers over whom these writings exercise an unabated power; and that we are rather out of humour with our critical habits, which deaden us to illusions so forcibly felt by others, in like manner as a person who is behind the scenes, and observes the ropes and pullies which move them, finds a diminution of the effect which the audience experiences from a scenic exhibition. To be pleased we know not why, or we care not wherefore, is not our prerogative as critics. Even when we are carried most rapidly along the stream of fiction, and feel all its enchantment, we are frequently compelled to stop short, and, by a process not

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unlike that of cross-examination, to question our emotions, and undermine the very foundations of our pleasure in the attempt to explore them.

Nevertheless, unpleasing as the office may be to throw stumbling-blocks in the way of the imagination, and to dissipate its illusions, it is one from which we must not shrink. Unskilful admiration may administer a temporary and fugitive delight: but rectitude of judgment is requisite for the substantial satisfactions, and the genuine complacencies, which are inspired by works of fancy. In the golden age of her arts, the people of Athens had the keenest relish, and a sensibility (we are told) approaching to intoxication, for the prodigies of sculpture and of painting which the schools of Phidias and Parrhasius had every where poured out before them: yet it was then that their taste was the most fastidious, and the most jealously alive to every violation of rule or congruity. It were to be wished that our novel-readers, who compose no trifling part of our large population, were visited with the same epidemic fastidiousness of judgment. In return for the transient enjoyment produced by an uncultivated sensibility, we could then promise them the more solid delight of feeling conjoined with reason, when the emotions of the heart are ratified by the verdict of the understanding: for there is scarcely any comparison between the degrees of pleasure experienced by the undisciplined fancy of those who devour indiscriminately all romances that fall in their way, and the sensibility, confirmed by taste and matured by judgment, of those who have been taught why they ought to admire, and have become acquainted with the source and cause of their sensations. It is the difference between the wild and unchastened pleasure inspired by the adventures of Don Bellianis and Cleopatra, and the rational but not less animated emotions infused by the Odyssey or the Æneid.

This slow and scrupulous and hesitating criticism is very much wanted at the present day, when we are become a nation of novel-readers; when the cares of the statesman, and the anxieties of the merchant, alike seek relief in this agreeable relaxation; when novels constitute the studies of drawing-rooms and kitchens, and hold in fixed suspense ladies and their *soubrettes*, gentlemen and their *valets*. We do not cherish the romantic expectation of making all such readers into critics: but we are not unreasonable in expecting them gradually to become more correct admirers, and more skilful judges, of the coinage of the imagination which passes so currently among them, if they can persuade themselves to ring and to weigh it, before they accept it in legitimate exchange for the coinage of the realm which they give for it.

A few

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A few years ago, indeed, these sober admonitions would have been more extensively requisite: for they would have applied to the mob of fictitious productions which over-ran our circulating libraries, and demanded the constant inspection of a literary master of the ceremonies to keep order and decorum among them. At present, however, it seems probable that our admonitory duties may be considerably curtailed; and that, instead of operating as heretofore on an undisciplined rabble, they will be chiefly confined to one family of fictions, descended from one progenitor, and bearing a common resemblance through all their varieties:

—— "*facies non omnibus una,*
Nec diversa tamen;"

and of which such is the ascendancy that they bid fair to drive all competitors from the arena. Enthroned in such estimation, and "enfeoffed of such popularity," the power of such an author over the common herd of readers is almost boundless. By what law is he who is himself the legislator to be tried; by what canon of criticism is he to be restrained, who has himself created the taste of his followers and admirers? Still, however, our duties are not the less imperious. They are in fact still more urgent. By whatever means he has obtained the patent of his monopoly, the restriction of the market renders it more necessary to inspect the commodity. It is our province to see whether, in this as in other instances, the certainty of success has not relaxed the endeavour to deserve it; and to admonish him roundly of those deficiencies of design, or negligences of execution, which depreciate the worth of the production, and bespeak an inattention approaching to ingratitude towards those by whom he has been so warmly cherished and so lavishly admired.

Yet we do not repine at this unquestioned supremacy, for it has worked, we believe, an unspeakable good to this department of letters. It has chased away the pallid troop of languishing Dorimonts and whining Belmours, of Julias and Clarindas, whose lives were the languid day-dreams of love-sick illusion; and who existed for no other purpose but that of wasting themselves to shreds in feeding unhallowed passions, and nurturing forbidden affections.

"The flocking shadows pale
Troop to the infernal jail."

For such personages, this author has substituted a rougher cast of heroines and heroes; who, falling on turbulent and stirring times, and cradled amid awful and portentous events, are sometimes driven onwards by a destiny as resistless as that

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which reigns through the drama of Æschylus, and sometimes wafted along the natural current of things; — a stream that never stagnates to breed the vapours of the feverish sentiment, which throws its green and yellow hue over the vulgar novel. Besides the superlative merit of dispersing these vicious phantoms of the imagination, the genius of this powerful writer, even in its march through the realms of fiction, scatters information and instruction as it proceeds. His invention, by its alliance with historic research, has for the most part interwoven into his writings various authentic delineations of periods of society, and peculiarities of manners, with which it would have been impossible to have rendered ourselves familiar without considerable labour, and without an easy access to books that are not in the reach of ordinary students. His romances, therefore, open what may be called a short cut to details of customs and characters incident to former times; and which, though the most valuable and interesting portions of historical information, are rarely found in the pages of the annalist. The external architecture and the internal economy of the habitations of the period, the velvet bonnet of the page, the frieze-jerkin of the peasant, and the Milan armour of the knight, are all brought as it were before our eyes. We read in history of falconry as the amusement of our ancestors, and we learn also that the art was sedulously cultivated by the great and opulent of the day: but no more: whereas in these romances we walk out with the falconer when he flies his hawk, we almost hear the rattling of the bird's silver bells as he soars and the whoop or whistle that calls him back, and we half perceive the proud animal on our arm, bearing himself gallantly with his hood and jesses. This and more than this might have been gleaned, we admitt from the black-letter treatises still extant, which discuss that renowned art; and our friends of the Roxburghe-club would have accommodated us, no doubt, with much musty learning in small quartos, embellished with wood-cuts, on this interesting subject: but it is not possible for any reading to furnish us with these curious patches of antient customs in a form at once so pleasing and so impressive as that in which these works present it to us.

Our objections, however, to historical romance, still remain in full force; and we are more and more convinced that the commixture of real and fabled personages, of actual and fictitious events, while it perplexes all our recollections of past transactions, is a great hinderance to the effect and fascination of the romance. We have already hinted, too, that, in perusing *The Abbot*, we were perfectly masters of ourselves; that we were so little identified with the scenes and the persons

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sons of the fiction, that we were perpetually liable to disenchantment; and that, when we waked from the momentary trance, we were not like those who felt the witchery of Ariel's soft melodies, and "cried to dream again." We think that we partly account for this deficiency of power over us, when we trace it to the perpetual conflict between our historical remembrances and the events and characters of the romance. So familiar are the melancholy occurrences of the time, the misfortunes of Mary Queen of Scotland, and the names of Murray and Morton who figured in that eventful drama, that when the same personages, who occupy so much space in our earliest memories, breathe their sorrows or strut and look big and talk in heroics through the pages of *The Abbot*, our historical impressions rise up at once to repel the intrusion of adventitious and feigned incidents. Catherine Seyton, for instance, is an interesting and bewitching creature, (like Diana Vernon,) though somewhat too masculine for our taste, but, with all her excentricities, well calculated to be the heroine of a novel. Had we met her in a pure romance, connected only with those agencies which the author's fancy had set at work, instead of contemplating her as an unimagined actor in the real events of a memorable period, while her fortunes are blended with those of a royal sufferer for whom our early sensibilities have throbbed, and concerning whom every detail has been explored and every actual occurrence rendered familiar, — had we met her, we say, in a tale of unmixed invention, she would probably have excited a tenfold interest. Some portion of credulity is requisite to the perusal of the merest fiction. If the author has tolerable powers, we readily accord him all the credence which he requires, or all that is necessary for the temporary surrender of ourselves to his bidding; and we follow him without restraint or interruption: — but even this transient credulity is withholden, when imaginary characters have real persons at their heels, and events resting on the strictest faith of historical attestation are ranged by the side of the wildest creations of fancy.

Still these are general remarks; and, allowing them their legitimate weight, they only qualify the praise to which, after all, *The Abbot* is justly intitled. It purports to be a continuation of *The Monastery:* but we were happy to find that our old friend the White Lady had ceased to haunt us. In the introductory epistle to Captain Clutterbuck, the author tells him that he has struck out that machinery; assigning, as his reason for the retrenchment, 'the little encouragement that the public taste gives to those legendary superstitions which formed the delight alternately and the terror of our predecessors.' This

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act of discretion is in our judgment highly meritorious; for the interviews of Glendinning with the White Lady in fact reduced the romance to a fairy tale. We took the liberty, on a former occasion, of entering our protest against the frequent interpositions of this aërial personage; and we rejoice that our hint has been adopted. It is true that an airiness and sometimes a grandeur of conception appeared in the preternatural parts of the story, but of the little pleasure that they gave us we felt half ashamed, while we blushed for the genius and good sense of the author. In truth, the abstinence has cost him little; and it was a false dread of poverty and exhaustion of materials only that could have sent his fancy on that strange mission to the world of spirits. He might have been better supplied by beings of flesh and blood at home. The circle of real existence is sufficiently wide for the boldest daring of romance; and while the author has the aid of such corporeal agents as Meg Merrilies and Magdalen Græme, can he justly complain that actual life is too barren and circumscribed for his imagination?

We shall now offer, not a regular and detailed analysis, but a concise abstract of the piece; which, though not to be classed with *Waverley* or with *The Antiquary*, is still of an order much higher than that of the last production of this indefatigable writer, and composed, on the whole, we think, with greater care and correctness.

The time is that part of the ill-fated reign of Mary which was passed in her dreary confinement in Lochleven Castle; and the romance terminates with her memorable escape, and (after a rash and precipitate battle) her ill-advised flight into England. In these occurrences, the fates and fortunes of the various persons whom it brings into action are interwoven. The youth Roland Græme, by a romantic adventure, is taken under the protection of the Lady of Avenel, who has been now some time married, and was childless. Sir Halbert Glendinning was frequently absent from his castle, being merged in the turbulent politics of the time, and high in the confidence of Murray the Regent. Magdalen Græme, the grandmother of the youth, consented to leave him under the lady's care: but she does this to answer some dark and mysterious purpose, to which her own existence seems to be dedicated by the old woman; who is of the true Meg Merrilies breed, and a Catholic devotee, intent on the deliverance of the Queen, and animated by impulses of fanaticism that drive her to the verge of insanity. It is in the developement of this character, and of the mystery with which it is shrouded, that no small portion of the interest of the work consists. In her soli-

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tude, the child of her adoption released the Lady of Avenel from the state of heavy apathy in which the departure of Sir Halbert generally left her; and we soon have the usual quantity of intimations of the dawning dispositions and future fortunes of the hero, which are to be found in all the romances of this author. Of course he was addicted to martial exercises, and breathed the haughty promise of military daring; and the lady had no doubt, from these and other symptoms of an unrestrained spirit, that the child was of high rank. On this hint she acted; and the result was that the *young master* became nearly spoiled, and got into several scrapes with the subordinate members of the household, in spite of the spiritual remonstrances and long-winded discourses of Henry Warden, whom our readers will recollect in *The Monastery*, and who was now domestic chaplain at Avenel.

At the age of seventeen, Roland happened to engage in a controversy with Adam Woodcock, the falconer, and drew his dirk on him; when, in consequence of a serious faction against him among the domestics, headed by the lady's maid, the youth was dismissed. He then repaired to the cell of Saint Cuthbert, having secretly cherished the Catholic faith in consequence of Margaret Græme's injunctions, fortified by the pious care of Father Ambrose, whom we recollect as Edward Glendinning; and here, after a separation of several years, he again met his mysterious relative. By means of her habitual and resistless ascendancy over him, she now bound him by a frantic obtestation to devote himself and all his faculties of soul and body to the execution of her resolve, and they commenced their journey together. They reached an old mansion, once a nunnery, but which had been nearly destroyed by the zeal of the Reformers; and the hero, having been introduced to an old melancholy female who was the superior of the demolished Order, and fanatically attached to the antient religion, was again devoted by Magdalen, "sinew and limb, body and soul, to the good cause." It is here that he first saw Catherine Seyton, (one of the sisters of the convent while it existed,) the heroine of the piece, who was also attached to the furtherance of the same cause; and in their first interview the vivacity and vigour of her mind are skilfully developed. We should impute great ignorance of the laws of romance to our readers, if we thought it could be necessary to inform them that at this interview Roland lost his heart. Magdalen and the youth resumed their pilgrimage on the morrow, and proceeded to the abbey of Kennaquhair, which had not escaped the fury of the times: but the Order, though dispersed, might still be said to survive in one or two of its members

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members who yet lingered in secrecy amid the ruins; and whom the travellers find busied in the election of an abbot, the choice having fallen on Father Ambrose. The church had escaped the general demolition; and in that venerable fabric the scanty remains of the Order were preparing by a solemn mass to celebrate the election, formerly the most splendid of the Romish ceremonies. 'Now all was changed. In the midst of rubbish and desolation, a few old men, shrouded hastily in the proscribed dress of their Order, wandered like a procession of spectres through the encumbered passage to the high altar, there to instal their superior a chief of ruins.' In the midst of the ceremony, a riotous crew of mummers broke in, who are described with great fidelity; and who were indulging in those Saturnalian licences at which in the plenitude of her power the church of Rome connived, but which, when the reformed party took the lead, became rude and licentious mockeries in which all that she held most sacred was turned into ridicule. An affray now ensued, in which Magdalen Græme shewed great prowess; and the person who played the Abbot of Unreason (who turns out to be Adam Woodcock, the falconer,) narrowly escaped a thrust from Roland, which would for ever have disabled him from similar freaks. The scene ended, after much riot and confusion, in the appearance of Halbert Glendinning, who dispersed the mummers and the rabble, consisting chiefly of his own vassals and dependants; and, recognizing the page of the Lady of Avenel, he took him, with the consent of Magdalen Græme, into his service, and dispatched him under the conduct of Adam Woodcock to the court of the Regent at Holyrood. As the old dame caught the last glimpse of him, "Heaven," she exclaimed, "which confounds the wise with their own wisdom, and the wicked with their own policy, hath placed him where, for the service of the church, I would most wish him to be."

Our readers will now see enough of the plot to be told that Murray, the Regent, appointed Roland Græme to fill the office of page (or rather of spy) in the household of the imprisoned Queen, at Lochleven, an island in the midst of a lake: whither he proceeded under the escort of a surly Presbyterian, Lord Lindesay of the Byres, who was deputed on a mission from the council of Scotland to that unfortunate Princess. On the Lady of Lochleven, and mother of the Regent, the author has expended no small portion of the powers of his matchless pencil: she was tinctured with the most rigorous notions of the reformed religion, and was the hostess, or rather the gaoler, of the Queen; a duty which she executed

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executed with the greatest harshness and ill-humour. Roland and two ladies constituted the whole of the retinue of Mary; and of these two he soon found that Catherine Seyton was one. The persecutions which the unhappy Queen underwent, the powerful fascination of her charms, and more than these the charms of Catherine, quickly made Roland devoted to her interest. Under this duress, Mary abdicated the crown in favour of her infant son; and she was now completely in the power of her enemies, with nothing before her but that short passage which usually intervenes between the deposition and the death of princes.

The stirring and busy scenes of the novel now commence; and the incidents and characters succeed each other so rapidly, that we must content ourselves with omitting all mention of the numerous episodes which intervene, and proceed to the escape of the Queen: the project darkly intimated by Magdalen Græme in her half-inspired ravings, and which had been matured by the Father Abbot of Kennaquhair, Magdalen, Catherine Seyton, Henry her brother, Douglas the grandson of the Lady of Lochleven, (a youth who, though of the opposite party by birth and education, had become hopelessly enamoured of Mary,) and the hero of the story. By an ingenious trick, Roland obtained possession of the keys of the castle, and at the dead hour of midnight the fair prisoners glided down the winding stairs under his guidance, and were received at the wicket-gate by Henry Seyton and the Father Abbot in disguise. Just after they had pushed off their boat, the centinel was alarmed by the dash of the oars, and guns were fired at them from the castle: but they were soon out of the reach of shot, and landed in safety. We should do great injustice to the author, if we did not point out to our readers this escape as the finest piece of description in his work: we throb with hope or freeze with horror through its various alternations, and hang with immoveable suspense over an event on which the fate of the lovely Princess was poised. That must be a flinty bosom in which the diversified emotions of this scene do not find an echo.

It had been well if Mary had avoided a conflict till she received reinforcements and her succours arrived from France, and had retired to the strong castle of Dumbarton to await the course of events. Other councils, however, prevailed: her little army was defeated and routed before Glasgow; and, as we before remarked, the result of this fatal discomfiture was that the Queen threw herself into the hands of Elizabeth. In this busy and ill-fated day, the hero much distinguished himself. Some jealousies and disagreements had arisen between

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tween Henry Seyton and Roland: the former having objected, on the ground of doubtful and obscure lineage, to the pretensions of the latter to the hand of the fair Catherine his sister. All this, however, is cleared up. Roland turns out to be of noble extraction, the son of Julian Avenel, and the successor and lawful heir of that barony; and, having had ample time during their mutual imprisonment at Lochleven Castle to become irrevocably pledged to each other, the lovers are duly married at the end of the last volume, notwithstanding the difference of their faith; Catherine remaining a steadfast Catholic, and her spouse adopting the system of the Reformation. 'The White Lady,' (and this is all that we hear of her,) 'whose apparition had been infrequent when the house of Avenel seemed verging to extinction, was seen to sport by her haunted well with a zone of gold around her bosom as broad as the baldric of an earl.'

We have thus rapidly given a mere outline of the story; and our next duty is to present our readers with a few brief specimens of its execution, for brief they now must be. We begin with a part of the interview of Roland with his kinswoman, the mysterious Magdalen Græme, at the hermitage of St. Cuthbert.

'"Be contented, my child," replied Magdalen Græme; "the time, which then and even now demands patience, will soon ripen to that of effort and action — great events are on the wing, and thou — thou shalt have thy share of advancing them. Thou hast relinquished the service of the Lady of Avenel!"

'"I have been dismissed from it, my mother — I have lived to be dismissed, as if I were the meanest of the train."

'"It is the better, my child," replied she; "thy mind will be the more hardened to undertake that which must be performed."

'"Let it be nothing, then, against the Lady of Avenel," said the page, "as thy look and words seem to imply. I have eaten her bread — I have experienced her favour — I will neither injure nor betray her."

'"Of that hereafter, my son," said she; "but learn this, that it is not for thee to capitulate in thy duty, and to say this will I do, and that will I leave undone. — No, Roland! God and man will no longer abide the wickedness of this generation. — Seest thou these fragments — knowest thou what they represent? — and canst thou think it is for thee to make distinctions amongst a race so accursed by Heaven, that they renounce, violate, blaspheme, and destroy whatsoever we are commanded to believe in, whatsoever we are commanded to reverence?"

'As she spoke, she bent her head towards the broken image, with a countenance in which strong resentment and zeal were mingled with an expression of ecstatic devotion; she raised her left hand aloft as in the act of making a vow, and thus proceeded: "Bear witness

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witness for me, holy saint, within whose violated temple we stand, that as it is not for vengeance of my own that my hate pursues these people, so neither for any favour or earthly affection towards any amongst them, will I withdraw my hand from the plough, when it shall pass over the devoted furrow! Bear witness, holy saint, once thyself a wanderer and fugitive as we are now — bear witness, Mother of Mercy, Queen of Heaven — bear witness, saints and angels!"

'In this high strain of enthusiasm, she stood, raising her eyes through the fractured roof of the vault, to the stars which now began to twinkle through the pale twilight, while the long grey tresses which hung down over her shoulders waved in the night-breeze, which the chasm and fractured windows admitted freely.'

Great humour and faithfulness of delineation appear in the following portraiture of the bustle of an inn, or hostelry, in these turbulent times at Edinburgh. Teniers himself could not have painted it with a more exact imitation of nature. Roland, under the care of Adam the falconer, while they were at Holyrood-palace, visits the hostelry of Saint Michael's with his facetious companion:

'"But the never a stride shall you go without me," said the falconer, "until the Regent shall take you whole and sound off my hand; and so, if you will, we may go to the hostelry of Saint Michael's, and there you will see company enough, but through the casement, mark you me; for as to rambling through the street to seek Seytons and Leslies, and having a dozen holes drilled in your new jacket with rapier and poniard, I will yield no way to it."

'"To the hostelry of Saint Michael's then, with all my heart," said the page; and they left the palace accordingly, rendered to the centinels at the gate, who had now taken their posts for the evening, a strict account of their names and business, were dismissed through a small wicket of the close-barred portal, and soon reached the inn or hostelry of Saint Michael, which stood in a large court-yard, off the main street, close under the descent of the Calton-hill. The place, wide, waste, and uncomfortable, resembled rather an eastern caravansery, where men found shelter indeed, but were obliged to supply themselves with every thing else, than one of our modern inns;

'Where not one comfort shall to those be lost,
Who never ask, or never feel, the cost.

'But still, to the inexperienced eye of Roland Græme, the bustle and confusion of this place of public resort furnished excitement and amusement. In the large room, into which they had rather found their own way than been ushered by mine host, travellers and natives of the city entered and departed, met and greeted, gamed or drank together, regardless of each other's presence, forming the strongest contrast to the stern and monotonous order

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order and silence with which matters were conducted in the well-ordered household of the Knight of Avenel. Altercation of every kind, from brawling to jesting, was going on amongst the groupes around them, and yet the noise and mingled voices seemed to disturb no one, and indeed to be noticed by no others than by those who composed the groupe to which the speaker belonged.

'The falconer passed through the apartment to a projecting latticed window, which formed a sort of recess from the room itself; and having here ensconced himself and his companion, he called for some refreshments; and a tapster, after he had shouted for the twentieth time, accommodated him with the remains of a cold capon and a neat's tongue, together with a pewter stoup of weak French *vin-de-pais*. "Fetch a stoup of brandy-wine, thou knave — We will be jolly to-night, Master Roland," said he, when he saw himself thus accommodated, "and let care come to-morrow."

'But Roland had eaten too lately to enjoy the good cheer; and feeling his curiosity much sharper than his appetite, he made it his choice to look out of the lattice, which overhung a large yard, surrounded by the stables of the hostelry, and fed his eyes on the busy sight beneath, while Adam Woodcock, after he had compared his companion to the "Laird of Macfarlane's geese, who liked their play better than their meat," disposed of his time with the aid of cup and trencher, occasionally humming the burthen of his birth-strangled ballad, and beating time to it with his fingers on the little round table. In this exercise he was frequently interrupted by the exclamations of his companion, as he saw something new in the yard beneath, to attract and interest him.

'It was a busy scene, for the number of gentlemen and nobles who were now crowded into the city had filled all spare stables and places of public reception with their horses and military attendants. There were some score of yeomen, dressing their own or their masters' horses in the yard, whistling, singing, laughing, and upbraiding each other in a style of wit which the good order of Avenel Castle rendered strange to Roland Græme's ears. Others were busy repairing their own arms, or cleaning those of their masters. One fellow having just bought a bundle of twenty spears, was sitting in a corner, employed in painting the white handles of the weapons with yellow and vermillion. Other lacqueys led large stag-hounds, or wolf-dogs, of noble race, carefully muzzled to prevent accidents to passengers. All came and went, mixed together and separated, under the delighted eye of the page, whose imagination had not even conceived a scene so gaily diversified with the objects he had most pleasure in beholding; so that he was perpetually breaking the quiet reverie of honest Woodcock, and the mental progress which he was making in his ditty, by exclaiming, "Look here, Adam — look at the bonny bay horse — Saint Anthony, what a gallant forehand he hath got! — and see the goodly grey which yonder fellow in the frieze-jacket is dressing as awkwardly as if he had never touched aught but

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but a cow — I would I were nigh to teach him his trade! — And lo you, Adam, the gay Milan armour that the yeoman is scouring, all steel and silver, like our Knight's prime suit of which old Wingate makes such account — And see to yonder pretty wench, Adam, who comes tripping through them all with her milk-pail — I warrant me she has had a long walk from the loaning; she has a stammel waistcoat, like your favourite Cissly Sunderland, Master Adam." '

As these volumes contain fewer picturesque descriptions than their predecessors, for this is a department of his art in which the highly gifted writer was wont to luxuriate as in his native element, we cannot omit the short sketch of Lochleven Castle; a scene which still derives so much interest from its having been the seclusion of the unfortunate Mary.

' Nor did any thing else occur worth notice until the band had come where Lochleven spread its magnificent sheet of waters to the beams of a bright summer sun.

' The ancient castle which occupies an island nearly in the centre of the lake, recalled to the page that of Avenel, in which he had been nurtured. But the lake was much larger, and adorned with several islets besides that on which the fortress was situated; and instead of being embosomed in hills like that of Avenel, had upon the southern side only a splendid mountainous screen, being the descent of one of the Lomond hills, and on the other was surrounded by the extensive and fertile plain of Kinross. Roland Græme looked with some degree of dismay on the water-girdled fortress, which then, as now, consisted only of one large Donjon-keep, surrounded with a court-yard, with two round flanking-towers at the angles, which contained within its circuit some other buildings of inferior importance. A few old trees clustered together, near the castle, gave some relief to the air of desolate seclusion; but yet the page, while he gazed upon a building so sequestered, could not but feel for the situation of a captive princess doomed to dwell there, as well as for his own. I must have been born, he thought, under the star that presides over ladies and lakes of water, for I cannot by any means escape from the service of the one or from dwelling in the other. But if they allow me not the fair freedom of my sport and exercise, they shall find it as hard to confine a wild drake, as a youth who can swim like one.'

We should be happy to close our extracts with the description of the escape of the Queen and her party, but we really cannot make room for it. We regret that the author has not enabled us to enrich our pages with any of those beautiful pieces of poetry, that in most of his romances,

" Like to rich and various gems, inlay"

the masculine and solid graces of his narrative. The present work, also, as we have already remarked, is more sparingly adorned

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adorned with those picturesque descriptions which he has heretofore, with such magic potency, spread before our imaginations. In exchange for these omissions, we have on the whole a more dramatic dialogue; though it is far from being sustained by characters of such marked feature, or of so wild and grotesque a quality, as those which move in his other romances. We repeat also our satisfaction in observing that, with respect to composition, though it is affectedly abounding with archaisms, and not always finished with that nice and religious reverence for the invisible laws of our language which ought to be scrupulously exacted from every modern writer, the volumes before us exhibit fewer instances of those faults into which the breathless rapidity of his last publication so obviously hurried him. Yet the praise which we cheerfully award him is due only with some restrictions. He is decidedly a mannerist,—a fault perhaps incident to the productions of every strong and original genius; and his heroes too nearly resemble each other, or rather they have scarcely any shade of difference. Mrs. Radcliffe's heroines had a similar uniformity: they had all blue eyes and auburn hair; and all of them were early risers, and went to bed late. In consequence, the rising sun perpetually ascended in his fullest majesty, the evening faded regularly in purple tints, and at night there was always a full moon with a lake to reflect her beams.—The heroes of the Waverley family are, for the most part, brought into this breathing world with a doubtful and obscure lineage, though we receive early intimations that enable us to guess who and what they are. Each of them nurses in his bosom the love of military glory, and is trained to the elements of war by feats of deadly daring in hunting and shooting. No deer stands a chance even on the most inaccessible crags, if he wants venison; and they all have an instinct which teaches them to sit well in the saddle, and to take delight in the curvettings and prancings of the steed, which the same unerring instinct teaches them to manage. We are, moreover, conducted to the end of their adventures with a clear light before us, which tells us what it will be: for the author of these romances does not deal in that which Aristotle calls the Peripetia *, which is the unexpected revolution from evil to good by means of the very circumstances that obstructed it, but we begin almost all his histories with the first of a series of events which cannot possibly lead to any other accomplishment. Of this *mannerism*, we have

* See Mr. Pye's note on the word in his translation of the "Poetics."

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various other indications. How often are we tormented, in a most eventful crisis, by an old prosing domestic, who recapitulates the genealogies of the house as tediously and as inopportunely as the Iphigenia of Euripides; treating us with the Scotish battles in which the antient worthies of the family fought and bled, and with a careful detail of the armour that they wore and the sword that they carried!

We suspect, also, (may we venture to whisper our suspicion?) that the author of Waverley has not a natural conception of humour. Like the gentleman in Moliere, who talked prose all his life without being aware of it, he is in our opinion never more grave than when he means to be most facetious. He is jocose rather than witty, more playful than humorous. For instance, the whole of the comic effect of Adam Woodcock's character consists in the eternal larding of his discourse with the terms and images of hawking; and we remember not a sentence in the whole work in which honest Adam forgets the falconer. Doctor Lundin, also, never utters a syllable that is not mixed with the medical cant of his shop: as, in the writer's former tales, his lawyers never open their lips but in the language of the courts. Now this is not real humour, because it is not real nature. Shakspeare, whose lightning instinct flashed instantaneously on all that was grotesque or comic in human character, never condescended to this narrow mode of delineation. His soldiers, his sailors, his weavers, his tailors, are designated by other strokes than the predominance of certain phrases and figures in their conversation: for, though belonging to different departments of life, his persons are still men; and there are surely some moments in which the falconer might forget his hawks and his eyasses, the Doctor think not of his drugs, and the lawyer abandon his jargon. Even the mariners of that great artist, a race of men the most addicted to the phrase of their profession, are sailors only in their actual vocation. "Cheerly, cheerly, yare, yare, fall to't yarely," they exclaim on board the ship in the Tempest: but Trinculo and Stephano, in the enchanted island, divert us by a humour more genuine than the unvaried gibberish of the sea would have excited if sailors only had been kept before our eyes.

Though we have long suspected, and have at length avowed our disbelief in, the wit and humour of this powerful writer, it is only to render him the more valuable homage. In the higher departments of his art he is still unrivalled; viz. the power of tracing the great and hardy virtues of the human mind; those which, like the mountain-tree, acquire their vigour from the storms that assail them. He has

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scarcely a competitor in painting the rougher and more savage lineaments of our nature, and unfolding the elemental strife of the passions during unsettled and turbulent periods. He is a complete master of the awful and terrific, and the fearful graces of Longinus are obedient to his call. We doubt whether his pencil is equally skilled in the portraiture of those less unquiet feelings, which grow up in the shade of domestic privacy; whether woman, who is often almost banished from his romances, could be drawn in her retiring and gentle attitudes, and in the full consummation of her modest and unobtrusive charms, by a limner accustomed to fill his canvass with beings in whom a softer sex is only a milder hardihood, a courage equally daring but less robust. Of his peculiar and appropriate powers, *The Abbot* will furnish abundant illustration in Magdalen Græme and the Lady of Lochleven. As for old Dryfesdale, the Lochleven butler, we think that he is unnecessarily introduced. He conduces little to the business of the story; and he is a horrible bigot and deadly fanatic, on whose heart youth and beauty, and every human title to earthly respect and homage, worked no other effect but that of heightening its malice and exasperating its resentments. The poisoning scene was an unnecessary and superfluous horror.

We are sorry to take leave for the present of this interesting author, by a graver reprehension than he has hitherto extorted: but we cannot abstain from mentioning his habitual and irreverent use of scriptural phrases. They are the treasures over which those who want every other solace, and have been taught to rest on no other support, love to hang in the season of silent meditation, or at the consecrated periods of public devotion. Let them not be profaned by the light and unthinking adoption of them into vulgar discourse, or by rudely handling them on common and secular occasions. They are words of life to the wretched, the oracles of truth to the devout, and ought not to be unnecessarily removed from the sacred volume that incloses them, to eke out the dialogue of a novel. We held our peace on this subject when we perused "Ivanhoe:" but the offence has been repeated, and we can be silent no longer. We did not, however, expect that the author would have judged it requisite to sustain the fanatic yet pious character of his Magdalen Græme, by putting into her mouth, when she met Roland at St. Cuthbert's, that annunciation which enshrines as it were within it all the hopes of the righteous here, and all the enjoyments of the blessed hereafter, "Well done, thou good and faithful servant!" It is indeed wholly *out of keeping* in reference

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to the person in whose mouth it is put: it is possible, but improbable, that a zealous Catholic might have repeated it in the Latin vulgate: but the use of that hallowed ejaculation in English is wholly inconsistent with her tenets or her character.

In the rapid career of his success, the author may not heed the admonitions which we have thus felt ourselves bound to venture: but it is in the dangerous hour of success that a writer most requires them. His works have brought him literary reputation, and something more durable and solid. He is now

"*Dives agris, dives positis in fœnore nummis.*"

Yet what are these? The breath of fashionable applause frequently deserts its favourites, and veers to opposite directions; and, as to the more substantial recompences, they would be dearly acquired with the inquietude which would prey on his honourable and ingenuous mind, if he were conscious of having, by trifling with revered names and consecrated expressions, lent the aid of his example to those who are labouring more directly to destroy the best hopes of man, and the dearest interests of the community.

ART. IX. *A Statistical, Commercial, and Political Description of Venezuela, Trinidad, Margarita, and Tobago:* containing various Anecdotes and Observations, illustrative of the past and present State of these interesting Countries; from the French of M. Lavaysse; with an Introduction and Explanatory Notes, by the Editor. 8vo. pp. 520. 15s. Boards. Whittaker. 1820.

ART. X. *The Reports on the present State of the United Provinces of South America;* drawn up by Messrs. Rodney and Graham, Commissioners sent to Buenos Ayres by the Government of North America, and laid before the Congress of the United States; with their accompanying Documents, occasional Notes by the Editor, and an Introductory Discourse, intended to present, with the Reports and Documents, a View of the present State of the Country, and of the Progress of the Independents. With a Map. 8vo. pp. 360. 9s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

ART. XI. *Voyage to South America,* performed by Order of the American Government, in the Years 1817 and 1818, in the Frigate Congress. By H. M. Brackenridge, Esq. Secretary to the Mission. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Allman. 1820.

THE first of these works is translated from the French of M. Lavaysse; the second and third are reprinted from the official Reports laid before the Congress of the United

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States, by the commissioners sent out to Buenos Ayres, in the frigate *Congress*, in order to prepare an habitual relation of intercourse between the extant authorities there and the government of North-America. M. Lavaysse's book, and the Reports, are introduced by extensive prefaces, and enriched with various notes; which display on the part of the English editor the requisite geographical information, and a liberal solicitude to draw the attention of the government and the commerce of this country to the great importance of South America, as well as to the danger of losing a favourable connection by deferring to recognize the established authorities. To each publication, also, an illustrative map is attached.

The volume which treats of the northern part of South America is divided into ten chapters. The first describes Venezuela, and includes some account of the expedition of General Miranda: the second gives a geographical sketch of Cumana, Cumanacoa, New Barcelona, Guiana, and Varinas: the third treats of the manners and customs, and the fourth of the industry and commerce; and much is said of the mercantile importance of New Barcelona, which may serve as a specimen.

'I now proceed to describe the province or district of New Barcelona. This country is bounded on the east by the province of Caraccas, on the west by that of Cumana, properly speaking, and on the south by the Orinoco, which separates it from Guina. To the north is the chain of Bergantin, which proceeds from the mountains of Santa Martha, and loses itself in the sea at Cape de Paria. It is thinly inhabited and scantily cultivated, but less mountainous than those of Caraccas and Cumana. Its immense meadows feed numerous herds of oxen, horses, asses, and mules, and thousands of them are exported annually to the neighbouring colonies. There is also a great quantity of oxen slaughtered there, of which the meat is smoked, and is an object of considerable trade. The port of Barcelona exported, during the peace of Amiens, and in one year, 132,000 oxen, 2100 horses, 84,000 mules, 800 asses, 180,000 quintals of tassajo or smoked beef, 36,000 ox hides, 4500 horse hides, and 6000 deer skins. In the environs of Barcelona there are cultivated various alimentary plants, including cocoa, of which there is a great consumption. There are not more exported from this province annually than 200,000 quintals of cocoa, 3 to 4000 quintals of indigo, about 2000 quintals of arnotta, and from 250 to 300,000 quintals of cotton. The merchandise is packed with much care in ox hides and deer skins of a square form, and those coverings are an advantage in trade. Maize is also an article of growth and exportation; but there is seldom more of it exported annually than 150 to 200,000 sacks, of about 150 pounds each. The inhabitants of the country grow a little rice for their own use, but it has not yet become an article of commerce.

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'Although the fisheries furnish abundantly for the consumption of the inhabitants on the coasts of this district, and they derive an article of small traffic with the interior from them, they are very far from being as productive as those of Cumana, and the coasts of the islands of Margarita, Cubagua, and Coche. This district, though its extent is so great, has only two towns, Barcelona and Conception del Pao. In 1634, Don Juan Urpin laid the foundations of Barcelona, on the left bank of the river Neveri, and at a league from its mouth: the chief place of the establishment in this canton was then the town of Cumanagoto, situated at two leagues higher up the river, which is now only a miserable village.'

The greatest service, which this government could at present render to the commerce of the agitated districts, would be to open an unrestricted intercourse between the British West-India islands and these continental sea-ports. If we could suspend for a few years, experimentally, the subsisting commercial monopoly, and allow all the islands to supply themselves at pleasure with continental productions, it would then soon be ascertained what was the natural course of trade, to what interchanges the relative state of demand and supply was most disposed, and in what ports these barters could most conveniently be accomplished. An increased consumption, and with it an increase of comfort, would soon overspread large districts; and the residence of a free population would every where become necessary as the mediators of supply.

With the fifth chapter begins a description of Trinidad. The maps in circulation are declared to be very incorrect; and some local improvements, such as a canal to unite the Oripo with the Oropuche, are stated to be pressingly wanted. The sixth and seventh chapters continue this statistical survey, and notice the progressive dryness, or drought, of Trinidad, in proportion as the woods are cut down. Much use is made of Bolingbroke's Voyage to the Demerary, which is cited with approbation, and of which we gave an account in our lviiith vol. p. 1. Chapter viii. treats of Tobago, so called from the name given by the Caribs to the pipe, or calumet, in which they smoak the herb *kohiba*, now called *tobacco*. This island was ceded to Great Britain at the peace of 1763. An instructive account is given of a plantation belonging to Mr. Robley, which proves that a high degree of comfort is enjoyed by those negro-vassals who live under a benevolent master. Still the arbitrary power of inflicting severities ought to be narrowed; and, above all, a law should be passed enacting that all people of colour are born free: thus reversing the axiom consecrated in Locke's legislation for Carolina that *partus sequitur* VENTREM.

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Chapter ix. contains philosophical inquiries concerning the negroes, and the tenth concerning the Indians, or indigenous Americans. The author, after a residence of sixteen years among them, gives the opinion that no native inferiority of intellect precludes the acquisition of literature and science by these nations: but that, when they have our opportunities of instruction and habits of discipline, they will rival us in the pursuit of knowlege. He instances Mr. Lilet, a negro born in Madagascar, who has transmitted to the Institute of France some astronomical observations on the comet of 1811, which attest a great progress in mathematical science, made without a master, and by solitary study.—The plantation of Sir William Young on St. Vincent's is noticed as a model for the good and kind treatment of slaves.

'Of all the British, French, and Spanish plantations I have known, the one on which the most admirable order is preserved, is undoubtedly that of Sir William Young at St. Vincent's. This plantation, delightfully situated partly on the declivity of a hill and partly in the plain, on the sea-coast, is watered by a fine river. The negroes are as well lodged as the substantial peasantry in the finest countries of Europe, while their properties are inviolable. The father of the present proprietor always took care that, in his absence, the plantation should be managed by a man of known humanity, and his worthy son follows the example. There, neither the manager or his deputies have the privilege of flogging the negroes. When a negro has committed a fault, the manager or overseer gives an account of it to the attorney, who pronounces sentence, after having heard the accused and the witnesses he produces in his defence. It is well known at St. Vincent's that this plantation is that of the whole island on which the fewest crimes are committed, and a whole year sometimes passes without the necessity of punishing a negro on it, whilst a day seldom occurs but some negro is flogged on the adjacent estates. Amongst other excellent regulations made by Sir William, one deserves to be particularly noticed: as soon as the physician has declared a negress with child, she is dispensed from all work, and not required to labour until one month after child-birth. As long as she suckles her infant, she is allowed two hours more repose every day than the other negroes, and on Saturday she is not permitted to work. If she has two children, she has two free days, without reckoning Sunday, which all the others have. Should she have three, she is allowed three days; in short, she has a day free for each child of which she is the mother, so that the negress who has six children is exempted from all work at the plantation. So that her whole time is free for the duties of housewifery, and she does not the less receive her rations of seven pots of meal and four pounds of salt meat and fish, as well as a similar ration for each of her children. There are on this plantation a chaplain and physician, who take the greatest care of the negroes; for Sir Willaim

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William Young has never employed any but men of probity. The population is so encreased on the estate, that not only has there been no necessity for a long time past to purchase any negroes, but there were in 1806 more than the number necessary for cultivating it; and yet the proprietor has had the good sense and humanity not to sell any of his slaves, by whom he is adored. When his father died at St. Vincent's, the negroes presented a petition praying that the remains of their dear master might be interred in the plantation; thus it was that they still called him in 1804; and I have seen those of them who wept in pronouncing his name, though it was then more than twenty years since his death! When the body of Sir William was conveyed on board a vessel anchored off the wharf of the plantation, to be sent to England, for the purpose of being deposited in the vault of his ancestors, the negroes who could not obtain boats to accompany it on board swam after it as far as the ship; and respectable persons in the island have assured me, that some who were not good swimmers drowned themselves in this pious enterprize.'

An appendix collects various public documents, such as Sir Thomas Picton's Proclamation, the Act of Independence of the Confederation of Venezuela, the Correspondence of General Bolivar relative to certain Spanish prisoners, the Act of Installation of the second Congress of Venezuela, and Bolivar's Speech to them on accepting the supreme command: it includes a striking exhortation to abolish negro slavery.

The editor of the American Reports thus relates, in his curious and interesting introductory discourse, the commencement of the independence of Buenos Ayres:

'In 1810, intelligence arrived of the flight of the junta of Seville. The cause of Spain seemed desperate, and the Viceroy himself, confounded by the destruction of those from whom his authority emanated, did all but invite the inhabitants to free him from the burthen of government. Thus the revolution arose not so much from any plan as from the spontaneous course of events. It was the work of time and accident more than of man. In the generality of political convulsions it is easy to fix upon a few individuals, and say, These were the men from whom such and such changes originated, and had they not appeared, the old order of things might have continued unassailed. This cannot be affirmed of any who have taken an active share in the changes at Buenos Ayres. None of the actors there have done any thing, which might not and which would not have been done, by any man of common understanding and common courage, placed in the same circumstances. They employed not cabal or intrigue: they only yielded to the impetuous current of events. They were in fact the heads of a people, not the leaders of a faction.

'A revolution is for the most part the work of one class of the community. But at Buenos Ayres all the natives concurred in the changes that were effected: the Europeans alone made opposition.

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It was a struggle not of the poor against the rich, but of the rich and poor conjunctly against the oppressors of their country. The men of property, as became them, have been conspicuous for their public spirit, and their sons have crowded to fill the ranks of the patriot armies.

'When changes are the fruit of conspiracy, they are regulated by the views of ambitious individuals, and it is impossible to say where they will stop. All will be destroyed, that is the object of fear or dislike to the rulers of the revolutionary tempest. From this calamity, the greatest that can befall a nation, Buenos Ayres has escaped. As her inhabitants proceeded no further than they were led by events, they only threw off the Spanish yoke, and substituted another supreme authority in its stead. Every thing else, in the internal administration of the country, remains as before. The rights of property have never once been infringed. The cabildos or municipalities have continued in the exercise of all their former prerogatives.

'As a revolution frees men from the restraints of law, at the same time that it calls the most violent passions into operation, it exhibits in most cases a series of atrocious crimes. Buenos Ayres has not been deformed by any stains of this kind. Parties have of course arisen in its bosom, but their mutual fury has never terminated in bloodshed.

'Thus the subversion of the Spanish authority in the provinces of the Rio de la Plata was justified by the strongest reasons; it was forced upon the inhabitants by events, rather than painfully accomplished by design or labour; it was the work, not of a party, but of all the native population, whether rich or poor; it was carried no further than necessity required, and it was not polluted by the perpetration of any enormities.'

To this introduction succeed, first, the report of Mr. Rodney, and then the report of Mr. Graham: both of which include a good statistical survey of the country; giving a concise sketch of its history, a more elaborate account of its geography, and a lively picture of the dispositions, tendencies, and pursuits of the inhabitants, together with an appreciation of their consumption and production. These two Reports may differ slightly in their points of view, and may occasionally supply each other's deficiencies: but in general they are similar, and almost tautologous. The ensuing estimate of the population occurs in the report of Mr. Graham; who, of the two, is the more ardent friend to liberty:

'Estimate of the Population of the Provinces of Buenos Ayres, Cordova, Tucuman, Mendoza or Cuyo, and Salta, under the Names of the different Towns or Districts which send Representatives to the Congress.

'By an imperfect census, taken, it is believed, in 1815, Buenos Ayres contained 98,105, excluding troops and transient persons, and Indians.

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	Excluding Indians.	By more recent estimates, Excluding Indians.	Including Indians.
Buenos Ayres - -	105,000	120,000	250,000
Cordova - - -	75,000	75,000	100,000
Tucuman - - -	45,000	45,000	20,000
Santiago del Estero -	45,000	60,000	
Valle de Catamarca -	36,000	40,000	
Rioja - - - -	20,000	20,000	
San Juan - - -	34,000	34,000	
Mendoza - - -	38,000	38,000	
San Luis - - -	16,000	16,000	
Jujuy - - - -	25,000	25,000	
Salta - - - -	50,000	50,000	
	489,000	523,000	
Provinces of Upper Peru.			
Cochabamba - - -	100,000	120,000	200,000
Potosi - - - -	112,000	112,000	250,000
Plata, or Charcas - -	112,000	112,000	175,000
La Paz - - - -			300,000
Puno {under the name of Santa Cruz de la Sierra}	120,000		150,000
Oruro - - - -	30,000		50,000
Paraguay - - -			300,000
Banda Oriental and Entre Rios - - -	50,000		

'*Note.*—It is not understood that any part of the province of Corrientes, or that of the city or district of Santa Fé, is included in this estimate; and some districts of some of the other provinces may be omitted.'

The appendix contains a translation of the historical sketch of the revolution of South America, by Dr. Gregorio Funes, Dean of Cordova (a long and valuable document): a Manifesto declaratory of independence, issued by the ruling authorities in the province of Rio de la Plata: Notes by the American Secretary of State: Provisional Regulations for the government of the province of La Plata, which is an extensive constitutional code; and official Letters of the administrative authorities. Some explanatory notes are affixed.

The voyage of Mr. Brackenridge (who was secretary to the commission of Messrs. Rodney, Graham, and Bland,) comprehends most of the information collected by the two preceding writers, and conveys in a more amusing shape a great body of additional instruction. He dedicates his book to Sir James Mackintosh, as a tribute of gratitude for the exertion of that eloquence which, to use the author's words, 'illumines the British

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British senate,' 'which is brightly reflected across the Atlantic,' and 'which comprehends and fully appreciates the future destinies of America.'

A copious introduction treats of the importance of Spanish America, and includes original remarks on the population, the state of learning and information, the Spanish system of finance, commercial policy, and colonial government. The various obstacles to the revolution are considered in detail; and an opinion is hazarded that the eventual line of traffic between the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans will not cross the isthmus of Darien, where it is narrowest, but will stretch from Guasacualco to Tehuantepec in the Mexican territory. The oppressive character of the Spanish institutions may be judged by the following anecdote:

'A learned Mexican, Don Jose de Roxas, who died at New Orleans in 1811, *was denounced by his own mother*, for having a volume of Rousseau in his possession; and for this offence he was confined within the prisons of the Inquisition for several years. He finally effected his escape to the United States, but it was several months before he could be convinced that the theory of the American government, as explained to him, could really be reduced to practice. He became afterwards a most enthusiastic admirer of our political institutions.'

The author sailed from Norfolk in Virginia to Rio Janeiro, which city he describes as in a rapid state of improvement; the removal thither of the Portuguese court having tempted the construction of innumerable villas on the romantic mountains which surround the haven. Great admiration was expressed by the Portuguese at the exquisite neatness of the American frigate Congress, and of her crew. The coronation of the king took place during Mr. B.'s stay, and occasioned repeated and very splendid illuminations.

A general view of Brazil is given in the second chapter; and the subsequent table of its population is communicated from an authentic quarter:

Provinces.		*Chief Cities.*	
Pernambuco	550,000	Pernambuco	40,000
Bahia	500,000	Bahia	90,000
Minas	384,000	Villa Rica	20,000
Rio de Janeiro	400,000	Rio Janeiro	90,000
St. Paulo	300,000	St. Paul	20,000
Rio Grande	250,000	Portalegre	3,000
Maranham	200,000	Maranham	20,000
Para	150,000	Para	15,000
Matto Grosso	100,000	Cuyaba	30,000
Goyaz	170,000	Villa Boa	5,000
Total	3,000,000		

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In the third chapter, the writer details the passage from the mouth of the Plata to Monte Video and Buenos Ayres, which are described. The American commissioners were visited by the principal inhabitants, and an illumination was ordered in honour of their arrival. The recognition of their independence, by so important a naval power, appeared to the Buenos Ayreans like the birth-day of their nation. — As this town and district have been repeatedly delineated in English books, we shall rather quote the somewhat episodical account of General Artigas:

'General Carrera had paid a visit some time before to Artigas, and from what I gathered from him, his gratification was not high. He painted him as a kind of half savage, possessing strong natural mind, taciturn, but shrewd in his remarks when he chose to speak. He wore no uniform or mark of distinction, and took up his abode in a cart or waggon, caring little for the refinements or comforts of civilized life, to which, in fact, he had never been much accustomed. His life had been passed in the plains, and he had an aversion to living in towns, and to the constraints of polished society. His residence then was at a small village on the Rio Negro, called Purification, consisting of a few huts constructed with mud, or ox hides; but his seat of government often shifted place. He lives on the same fare, and in the same manner, with the gauchos around him, being in truth nothing but a gaucho himself. When told of a pamphlet published against him at Buenos Ayres, he spoke of it with the utmost indifference, and said, "My people cannot read." He has about him a small body of men, who are considered regular soldiers, but his chief force consists of the herdsmen of the plains; its numbers, therefore, extremely fluctuating, as it cannot be kept long together. His followers are greatly attached to him. His fame and superior intellect commands their respect, at the same time that he indulges them in a certain kind of familiarity, which wins their affections.* A few simple words, liberty, country, tyrants, &c. to which each one attaches his own meaning, serve as the ostensible bond of their union, which in reality arises from "their pre-disposition to an unrestrained roving life." His authority is perfectly absolute, and without the slightest control; he sentences to death, and orders to execution, with as little formality as a dey of Algiers. He is under the guidance of an apostate priest, of the name of Monterosa, who acts as his secretary, and writes his proclamations and letters; for although Artigas has not a bad head, he is by no means good at inditing. Monterosa professes to be in the literal sense, a follower of the political doctrines of Paine †; and prefers the constitution of Massachusetts as the most democratic, without

'* They address him by the familiar name of *pepe*.'

'† Paine's Common Sense, and the American Constitutions, have been widely circulated in every part of South America.'

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seeming to know that the manners and habits of a people are very important considerations. The men bearing arms under Artigas probably amount to six or eight thousand, but the number at any time embodied is much less; the want of commissaries and regular supplies rendering it impossible to keep them together. The neighbouring Indian tribes are also devoted to him, principally through the means of his adopted son, an Indian named Andres *. I give the impression left on my mind from the conversation of the General: it is possible I may have mingled in this statement something of what I may have heard from others.'

Chap. iv. mentions the celebration of the independence of Chili, and gives an account of many events which led to that result.

An extensive appendix terminates the first volume, in which are comprized the Reports of Messrs. Rodney and Graham, already noticed.

Volume II. is divided into six chapters; of which the first and second contain observations on the geography and history of the United Provinces of the South: the third appreciates their military force, their public revenue, their commercial capabilities, and the state of learning and information: the fourth is an historical section, which relates the principal occurrences at Buenos Ayres since the commencement of their revolution: the fifth details miscellaneous observations on the police, state of society and manners, and other characteristic features of this adolescent empire; and in the sixth chapter the commissioners, having completed their inquiries, re-embark on board the *Congress*. In its return, the ship touched at Bahia, or San Salvador, a city rivalling in population the metropolis of Brazil, but less picturesquely situated. The voyagers next anchored at the island of Margaritta, and carried thither the first news of the victory of Maipu; the effect of which at Venezuela, in giving spirits to the patriots,

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' * These Indians have occasioned great terror in the settlements on the Parana. I saw several families at Buenos Ayres who had fled down the river in consternation, even from the neighbourhood of Santa Fé. Mr. Bonpland, the celebrated naturalist, had intended to ascend the river for the purpose of pursuing his researches, but was prevented by the accounts he heard of the Indians around that place; the defeat of the troops of Buenos Ayres was chiefly effected by them in the thick woods of the Entre Rios. This philosopher, whose opinion is worth attending to, observed to me, " It is a fortunate circumstance that Artigas is very old, and cannot live long, otherwise it would be in his power to do irreparable mischief." '

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is noticed. Many particulars of the state of public opinion and public strength are communicated.

A letter on South-American affairs, addressed by an American to Mr. Monroe, the President of the United States, is preserved in the appendix, in which the following character is given of General San Martin. The writer is discussing the question whether that General or Puerrydon is most likely to become the supreme ruler in the new republic:

'I put it to the good sense of any one, in such a state of things, who is likely to be the military despot, the one who is at the head of the civil government, or the man who has the command of the army, who has dazzled the people by brilliant success, who is received in the different cities through which he passes with triumphs and every demonstration of public admiration? *This man is* SAN MARTIN, *the liberator of Chili.* When to his good fortune and talents, he adds the character of a virtuous man, is it reasonable to suppose that he will not be looked to as the first man of the republic? What has been related to me of this man leads me almost to believe that South America, too, has her Washington. When San Martin restored Chili to liberty and independence, he was tendered the supreme directorship by the cabildo, but this he magnanimously declined, declaring that his business was completed, that he was about to leave them to form a government for themselves! To avoid the honors which were preparing for him at St. Jago, he stole out unobserved on his return to Buenos Ayres, but was overtaken by a deputation, requesting him, at least, to accept the sum of twenty thousand dollars, for the purpose of bearing his expences. This he positively refused. On his approach to Buenos Ayres, every preparation was made by the inhabitants to receive him in the most distinguished manner; twenty thousand people waited on the road at which he was to enter! The Chilians, in one of the first acts of their government, voted a sum of money to repay the republic of La Plata the expence of the expedition, and then by consent of the latter took the army into their own service: San Martin returned to assume the command, and the manner in which he was received by the grateful inhabitants of Santiago, has been detailed in our newspapers. It was not unlike the reception given to our own Washington in Philadelphia. It is only in popular governments, that a real triumph can ever take place; it is only here that this genuine and highest of all earthly rewards can await the virtuous and the brave. — The independent republic of La Plata and Chili, through San Martin, have, in all probability, by this time, given liberty and independence to their brethren of Peru.'

In one respect, the revolutionary authorities in the revolted Spanish colonies appear to us to have acted unwisely; namely, in issuing letters of marque, and encouraging an extensive practice of privateering. All the profit of these predatory expe-

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expeditions passes into the hands of American and English adventurers, who are progressively reviving a pernicious buccaneering system, and converting the Gulf of Mexico into a nest of pirates. These illicit gains may be acquired at the expence of loyal Spaniards, and thus in some degree cripple the resources of an opponent party: but still they are all made at the cost of the country which grants the letters of marque, and must considerably retard the regular natural progress of opulence in the various sea-ports whose shipping is thus offered as the prize of courage, indeed, but also as the premium of robbery. Surely, it would have been more worthy of the cause of independence to endeavour to confine the mischiefs of warfare to organized armies and fleets; and, if possible, wholly to exempt from it the lives and fortunes of private individuals.

That Venezuela, that Buenos Ayres, that Chili, and that Peru, will eventually find it necessary to make their local governments independent of each other, is rendered probable by their geographical situation: but they may well be expected to find in a common language, and in the habit of connection with the same mother-country, a sufficient motive for federal union, and for co-operating in purposes of external defence and interior improvement. Should this union endure, it will prepare the growth of one of the most important empires which the world has ever seen.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR SEPTEMBER, 1820.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 12. *The Comforter.* A Poem. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Taylor and Hessey. 1820.

The author of this pious little book hopes that the reader will not sit down to its perusal while his ears are vibrating with more popular strains. This is a very natural request, but quite superfluous, we conceive, in point of fact: such extremely serious numbers as the present not being likely to be taken up immediately after the *battle* in "Marmion," or the *description* of Greece in "Childe Harold." It is not, however, the solemnity of his matter alone which stands in the way of this author's popularity. The present age manifests no indisposition to religious reading: but *some* neatness of expression, and *some* music of versification, are indispensably necessary to secure attention to a sacred subject. This writer is too diffuse, and too feeble, to expect success: he means excellently well, we are assured, and he is now and then more fortunate in the execution of his design: but we feel it impossible

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possible to select any animated description, any scene of passion, or any finished common-place, from his tedious performance. Speaking of the harmonious sounds produced by the waving and rustling of boughs and leaves, he thus addresses the reader:

'—— 'Dost not think
Thy soul was never rightly struck upon by sound,
Till waken'd by those accents? Harmony,
Skill beyond thought benignantly contriv'd!
Where not a sound is not in unison,
And doth not strike upon the very chord
Of soft emotion 'twas ordained to thrill.
Delicious harmony! to Sorrow's ear
Better attemper'd than the eager trill
Of the aspiring welcomer of day:
Or hers who sings in covert, whether day
Gild and enlighten the enamell'd mead,
Or night, with all its darkness and its dews,
Chill into silence every breast less warm;
Having her spring of rapture in herself,
Her little throat can never half convey
Each flower brocaded on earth's mantle green,' — &c. &c.

Referring to the rich, (we believe,) this indistinct versifier thus expresses himself:

'Like him that wak'd in Eden, they are doom'd
After short essay of surpassing good,
Their lively frames all organiz'd for joy,
Of such fine texture as in happier climes
Drinks in, well-pleas'd, the genial atmosphere, —
To fall to earth, and labour on a soil
Perverse and rugged. They are as the sole
Of the soft woman, delicate and fine,
Form'd to repose on silken tapestry,
And never venturing to touch the ground,
That flies in torture over rock and stone,
Envying the tann'd and thick-skinn'd labourer;
And weeps its luxury in tears of blood,
When the lost battle and the hosts at hand
Forewarn the high-born daughters of a town
To fly away upon their tender feet.'

'The *sole* of the soft woman' is very original.

'Its splendid and indēfinable round, (p. 42.)

affords a striking example of novel accentuation. The Arsis and Thesis change places *ad libitum* in many modern instances of orthoepy: but it is rarely that we are furnished with so happy a specimen as the above.

'As if the grave *regorg'd unchang'd* its prey.'

This is peculiarly melodious. *Cui bono* such versification as this?

'Except

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'Except by due induction we have drawn
From facts collated.' P. 62.

'We may conceive impassibility.' P. 63.

—— 'As thou didst shout, "Well done!"
Conscience awoke, and mutters, "Scarce begun
The stated task appointed thee to do,
Or e'er thou rest indeed: arise, pursue!" '

These lines are from '*The Sabbath*,' a poem in rhyme, subjoined to '*The Comforter*,' in blank verse.

We are bound, in charity to all parties concerned, to advise the author to give a long sabbath to his pious Pegasus, and not even to take him out on a Sunday's journey for years to come.

Art. 13. *One Lay of a Night Harper to his Queen.* Edited by Joseph Senwod. 8vo. Pamphlet. Printed for the Author. 1820.

We must rank this little poetical effusion among the best which have appeared on a subject deeply involving our national character and honour. Its merit does not entirely depend on the laudatory strain in which it is written: for it displays spirit and power in the composition, and is expressed in bold and figurative diction, though somewhat too elevated and glaring even for "the language of the gods." Considering it only as a poetical production, it would appear to belong to that species of composition which manifests rude and untutored strength; — the vigour and ebullition of youthful power, without check or restraint, and without the polish and cultivation of maturer genius. The language and versification are often broken and perplexed, the sense is occasionally obscure, and the poetry is unequally sustained: yet "with all its imperfections on its head," it breathes the spirit of greatness and enthusiasm.

1.

'How like a winter-morning's sun,
Without a glory, though uprisen,
Revisiting his world, thro' dun
Clouds, that would make the heavens his prison,
She looks! When shut from his blue throne,
Thro' storm-eclipse far greater shewn,
Their bloodied phalanx gives him splendour not his own.

2.

'All hail! still welcome as the sun,
Tho' on our mournful hail! *farewell*
Hangs like *a cloud*, a thundering one
Which day-break's gorgeous spectacle
O'ercurtains in the east; when black
Storms drive from his grand morning break
Of blue, day's mourning monarch back,
Yet his own purple pomps blush round his parting track.

'The

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3.

'The heart of Albion leaped toward her,
Her genius with a shout of thunder
Mounted her white walls; God to guard her,
Sent down a mighty angel under
A cherub babe's white garb — thine, pity,
To make each heart a stirring city,
ove-fortified, 'gainst armies and banditti!

4.

'Yet must no prayers for her be said,
None bless her — none — no arms enfold her;
No crown adorn her homeless head;
Her empty throne must stand and moulder;
Her bones no weeping subjects lay
By hers who loved her; but Time say
He knows not of her out-cast clay!

5.

'No prayers for her? — Yet, ruthless fools!
With reverence to each sacred wall,
Churches are of our hands and tools;
Why, in ten thousand *temples*, all
Immortal as their God who framed,
She *is*, and ever shall be named
To *Him!* in soul — in his own worship-place proclaimed.

6.

'No crown for her? its golden thorns
Keep then! what countless pearly gems
In Britain's eyes repay her scorns,
Outshine her ravished diadems!
Be heaven her husband!' —

Independently of all party-feeling and opinions, these lines may be called poetical, perhaps, by those who understand them.

Art. 14. *Orient Harping:* a Desultory Poem, in Two Parts. By John Lawson, Missionary at Calcutta. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Westley. 1820.

"*Non tali auxilio, nec defensoribus istis!*"

Well may our RELIGION thus exclaim, if we may venture to use such a personification. Here is a book full of that grotesque mixture of piety and profane jesting, which distinguished the speeches and writings of the Puritans of former days; and which is the characteristic of modern Methodists, both in and out of the Established Church. We have no means of knowing to which class the present Calcutta missionary belongs: but he is certainly destitute of that solemn awe and reverence of feeling, when talking of religious subjects, which become a member of any church when so talking, and which are still more plainly suited to a professed propagator of our holy faith.

In a poem called '*Heaven*,' we have this passage:

 —— 'Ye

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—— ‘ Ye merry Englishmen
Beware the smoking board at Christmas time,
Groaning beneath the weight, or roast, or boiled,
Of beef! yea, I repeat, of beef beware!
You deem my roguish pen ironical,
My sage advice obtrusive! thus it is
That mortals vain, howe'er we sing or preach,
(For bards may preach) are poor, vain mortals still!
What, smiling? — Then pursue your fleshly course.
Begin the meal carniverous, and call
Your jolly neighbours in to noble cheer,
Cheer worthy of such motley guests, for each
A table champion looks redoubtable,
With nose majestic, red and ample cheeks,
And ampler belly. Nor less a champion bold
Of shadowy aspect, and lank countenance,
Full apt to wield the greasy knife and fork
Is he, who scarce has flesh to hide his ribs,
Whose every meal is lost on wretch so bony.
Draw in ye longing ranks, ye hungry souls,
Nearer the table come, if near ye may
Or can, with corporation such as yours
Approach! the whitened towel with cleanly care
Tuck close beneath your chins, lest gravy-drop
From overflowing mouth should luckless fall,
And luckless spoil the waistcoat, neat and trim,
Preserved for holiday and manly feast.
But, still remember, sirs, if minds refined
As yours must be, upward aspire to Heaven
Of swarthy Hindoo, (for I late have heard
That English Christians now are grown devout,
And long for kind release from cumbering clay,
That they may, disembodied, rise to bliss;
Basking themselves in the light of divers gods,
And rapt, contemplate each unearthly form
And hue, and variegated attribute,)
No corner there shall bless your piety.’

If an author really intended to check any propensity to *excess*, at a time when social cheerfulness is not only allowed but required, was this the best manner which he could adopt to execute his rational design?

What is to be gained to piety, or what fruit, indeed, of any sort but deep disgust can be gathered, from such descriptions as the subjoined?

—— ‘ Oh, I have heard
Of fearful places in the world of mortals
Where murderers' bones do lie, and whiten, and rot,
And the dank smell of death is ever there,
And the fat earth throws up a rancid grass
Dull green, and vervain patches. Slinking dogs

Growl

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Growl there, and snuffle o'er the perished garbage,
Or howl unmeaningly as though they saw
Bad men, their masters once, rise into form
From the soft mould — but these are idle things.
No place on earth, no charnel-house like this:
Sculls, rawbones, putrid limbs, and puking worms;
Worms, rolling through and through, all riotous
Glutting on festered flesh, or lazy sleeping
Surcharged with rottenness. Here beasts unclean,
Depraved and wolfish, of no earthly name,
Deep howling, roam their never-ending round.
Sinners may rest not here; hurried along
They move in groups distempered. See, they smite
Their breasts, they tear their shagged hair despairing;
With clenched fist in sudden fear they start,
Or slow and sullen wind their gloomy way,
Hand locked in hand, wringing with doleful cry:
Emaciated features speak each grief
E'er pictured on the madman's visage. Wan
The rivelled cheek. The hollow dark eye shooting
With maniac vacancy; there sit remorse,
Indignant scorn, and malice brooding phrensy;
There envy scowls, and rage impotent burns.'

The elegant accentuation of 'impōtent' has a similar example, to keep it in countenance, in the very first paragraph of this 'Orient Harping,' as it is fantastically intitled. That paragraph we shall now quote, as a sufficient clue to the character and spirit of the whole publication.

'ORIENT HARPING.

'*The Prelude.*

'The orient panorama, glowing grand,
Strange to the eye of poesy; the depths
Of jungle shade; the wild immensity
Of forests rank with plenitude, where trees
Foreign to song display their mighty forms,
And clothe themselves with all the pomp of blossom;
The fervid heavens; the hot consuming wind;
The fierce delirium of north-western storms
Black with vehēmence; the vicissitude
Of shape and hue afloat upon the sky,
When the full clouds are tossed upon the gale;
The village thronged with sable peasantry;
The temple, dark abode of numerous gods
Of all complexions in chromatic glory,
Of various structure, tall, or short and round,
Brittle, but comely to the admiring eye,
Or tough and serviceable, made to last
As gods should last; the shasters still more crowded
With unintelligible things; the Cross

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Of Jesus Christ victorious in the land
Of heathens shrouded now in moral gloom,
The Muse discursive sings.

'She sings as suits
Her moody mind, descriptive with light touch
Praising sweet Nature's fantasies. Enrapt
In waking dreams she urges the bold wings
Of thought to wider flight, or sober grown
With grave sarcasm chants of absurd things,
Or humorous, quaintly thrums a chord or two;
Then solemn dwells upon the works of God
Seen every where, most felt with blessed power
Resting upon the soul of man renewed.'

Our readers will have noticed the word 'vehemence.'

We could easily multiply quotations, to shew how happily the author has attained his worthy object of associating the absurd and the religious: an object, alas! which he seems to have in common with many of his cotemporaries. Would to Heaven that any word from us might be effectual in exciting a caution in our various Missionary Societies, as to that one particular quality of *judgment*, in the persons whom they select to carry their important objects into execution!

The rapid succession of the divine and human needs not startle any reader, after the foregoing specimens:—but still we do wonder when we meet such passages as these:

——'"Glory to God!
Glory to God in the highest, peace on earth,
Good will to men."—Thy fame, Oh Wilberforce,' &c.

Well may this be called a '*Desultory* Poem'!

Art. 15. *Harold;* or The English King. A Tragedy, in Five Acts. By Dyer Dew. 8vo. 2s. Wilson. 1820.

This play was written and printed by the same individual. Remembering the fame of Richardson, and being always sincerely desirous to encourage those who are in any degree connected with literature, we are unwilling to visit this author with the punishment due to the sins of presumption: but we do seriously exhort him to reflect, and to take the advice of his friends, on the expediency of publishing such matter as the subjoined.

'ACT I.—SCENE 1.

'*St. Paul's Cathedral, London.*

'*Aldred, Archbishop of York; Stigand, Archbishop of Canterbury; Edwin, Earl of Mercia; Morcar, Earl of Northumberland; and Nobles, are assembled, previous to the coronation of Harold.*

Aldred. Most holy prelates! mighty nobles!
Now minister we in our joyous rite;
Joy, too powerful for weak fruition;
That to invigorate, our heavy grief
Let us disburden into the current,

Flowing

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Flowing from all hearts freely forth,
Pierced by affliction for the beloved king,
The regal protector of the holy church!
'*Stigand.* As in reverential hope we live,
The gracious monarch's immortality!
Holds in the regions presence, and translation,
Where, to the passenger of probatory life,
Sacred church shews the habitations of the just,
In heav'nly solace, we our grief forego;
Our high purpose bringing to accomplishment.
'*E. Edwin.* Holy prelates! most noble countrymen!
Let us partake of the sacramental cup,
Having hearkened unto the people's voice
Exclaiming, Harold, son of Godwin, let be King!
'*E. Mor.* Holy dignitaries! great peers!
The beloved monarch, affable, and benign,
Was, unto aliens, of favour large dispenser;
Normans, their plumes upraising in o'erblown pride,
Reviled the sufferings of native subject.
When, as we spake thy gracious name,
Burst on free air, in clamour to the skies,
The matchless praise of England's faithful friend!
Gaining their voice, thou fill the vacant throne.
'*Aldred.* Behold, great lord, the nobles iterate
The wishes of the people's yearning hearts.
Holy church, blending her choice in unity,
Ordains to me the charge majestical,
Thee to present the symbol of their duties.
[*Aldred offers the crown, and presents Harold with the cup of sacrament, who takes the cup, and advances to the altar.*]
'*K. Har.* Ministers of Heaven, permeating the universe,
By this cup, in holy remembrance
Of divinest amity, left by the merciful
Redeemer of the world, 'fore ye we swear
To govern in forbearance, justice,
Clemency!
'*Choir sing.* "He shall feed his flock like a shepherd, he shall gather the lambs with his arm, and carry them in his bosom, and shall gently lead those that are with young."
Powers prescient! pre-eminent!
Who from your kingdom dispatched angelic
Minister, to move the waters of the Judaen pool,
To work at once but single cure;
Into this cup infuse your excellence,
And by good deed, our will consecrate.
[*Aldred puts the crown on the head of Harold.*]
'*Ald.* Long live Harold, prosper King of England!
'*Choir sing.* "Glory to God in the highest, and on earth peace, good will towards men."
[*Sound of trumpets makes known the coronation to the people, King Harold in the interval ascends the throne.*]'

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We leave this passage with our readers; only asking them whether, in the complicated extravagance of modern productions, they ever encountered a more excentric style of versification, a more peculiar strain of phraseology, than that of 'Harold, or the English King?"

NOVELS.

Art. 16. *The Italian Don Juan;* or Memoirs of the Devil Sacripanti, the Brigand of the Apennines. Translated freely from the Italian. By M. H. Milner, Author of "Barmecide," "Jew of Lubeck," &c. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Chapple. 1820.

The late resuscitation of the celebrated Don Juan, in a masterly poem, has had the usual effect in such cases; viz. that of giving rise to extravagant imitations and impositions of the name, both in prose and verse. In the former we may include the present production, of which the origin is attributed to a hermit of Mount Pausilippo; who, 'urged by the reports from those who visited him, of the adventures of the famous Sacripanti, resolved to dedicate his moments of leisure to commit them to paper in the order in which they occurred.' His successor in the hermitage 'found, *in a hole of the wall*, closed up with a stone, a small roll of paper.' This, of course, he ingenuously communicates to a friend, who kindly communicates it to the translator, who obligingly communicates it to the public.

Since the explosion of this system of literary telegraphical communication in the novels and tales of Mackenzie, we were not prepared to see it so soon and so clumsily revived; and the translator had better at once have given us his authority, or omitted the matter altogether. Respecting the character and achievements of the hero, whether of foreign or indigenous growth, we really do not think that he has sufficient qualities to distinguish him from others of "his kith and kin." He has too little of "a spice of the Devil in him" to be *a famous devil* after all. He deals neither in sorcery nor enchantments, and rides neither on a broomstick nor in a storm. So far from carrying castles by enchantment, he cannot even make the tiles fly off the roof and enter it from the air, but proceeds in a very thief-like and despicable manner to pick a lock, or, *brigand*-like, to thunder at the gates with a hatchet. His merit seems chiefly to consist in hard fighting, his strength in the thickness of his skull, and his sensibility in unbounded licentiousness. Indeed, he appears to support that part of his character most consistently, which depends on general admiration of the ladies; and his conduct in this respect is as free from morality as any devil could desire. A portion of his history has nevertheless its amusing points, from which it is too apt to fall again into dulness and vapidness; and, to say the truth, it has certainly too much of what a painter would call *repose*, both in design and colouring. His first exploit, however, is sufficiently animated: for he ravishes a young lady from her parents, who expresses her utmost abhorrence of him, and then rather unaccountably *shakes hands*. His next speculation, too, is in character: for he turns bandit, and unites himself

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self to the brotherhood of mountain-monks, who confess their neighbours at night. He then assassinates his rival; and a series of minor delinquencies follow, in which he uniformly plays "*il primo buffo.*" Being weary at length of land-service, he joins with a Corsair named *Barbaro*, and puts to sea, where his piratical adventures form a fair sample of the powers and accomplishments of 'The Devil Sacripanti.' In style and sentiment, as in action, his conduct is equally well sustained throughout: but *our* part will not be so justly and consistently played, if we waste any more time and words on so worthless a subject.

Art 17. *The Retreat;* or, Sketches from Nature, a descriptive Tale. By the Author of "Letters on History," "Affection's Gift," &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. Baldwin and Co. 1820.

We cannot offer better advice to this fair writer, than that she should confine herself in future to compilations for children, such as those which have already intitled her to applause; since her present attempt at a work of fiction is not calculated to amuse or instruct, the style being affected, and the events strangely contradicting the title of 'Sketches from *Nature.*' For instance, where in real life is the refined young lady who would compose a song like that of Madeline in vol. i. p. 40., of which the burden is, "Oh 'tis the kiss of wedded love!" In vol. i. p. 106., a French expression is thus misapplied, 'they noticed not the unusual *distrait* of the Colonel;' and again, in vol. ii. p. 122., 'he supposed the Colonel's *distrait* arose.' In vol. ii. p. 23., we are told that 'he clasped her with *convulsion* ardour;' and in p. 40. one of the gentlemen exclaims, '*Thou* art my guardian angel, the ready soul can image *you*,' &c.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 18. *Taxidermy:* or, the Art of collecting, preparing, and mounting Objects of Natural History. For the Use of Museums and Travellers. With Plates. 12mo. pp. 72. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

Taxidermie is a term recently introduced into the French language, and derived from the Greek ταξις, *arrangement*, and δερμα *skin;* denoting the art of stuffing and preparing the spoils of animals, for the purpose of preserving them in museums, or cabinets of natural history. Since, however, a new word had become necessary, expediency might have suggested the adoption of one that was expressive of the *ordonance* of specimens of natural objects in general.

The most approved directions for packing, dressing, and mounting animals of different descriptions, are those which were published by M. Dufresne, assistant-naturalist and director of the zoological laboratories in the Museum of Natural History at Paris, in the first edition of the New Dictionary of Natural History, and which have been reprinted in the second edition of that work. The numerous specimens in the Parisian Museum, adjusted by M. Dufresne himself or by some of his pupils, sufficiently attest

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the superiority of his method over those which have been proposed by other writers on the same subject. His code of instructions, however, though in many respects excellent, is still remote from perfection, and needs not damp the exertions of those who may be inclined to make more extensive and diversified trials. It would especially be highly desirable to discover some equivalent for the arsenic, which is a prominent ingredient in the preservative soap, and the frequent and inconsiderate use of which is not unaccompanied by danger. We have also reason to believe that M. Dufresne has failed in retaining the natural but fugacious colours of fishes, and of some of the invertebrate animals. Yet he has compressed so much practical information within a very limited number of pages, and detailed it in such a clear and perspicuous manner, that we are pleased to find his communication rendered accessible to the English reader by the appearance of the present volume.

The translator, however, for reasons best known to himself, enters abruptly on his task, without even announcing his work as a translation; although, in the course of the performance, he condescends incidentally to reveal the author's name. He has, moreover, not chosen to acquaint us that the account of the process for preparing eyes in enamel is from the pen of the Abbé Manesse, whose curious papers have been too long withholden from the press. Not having within reach a copy of the original instructions drawn up by the professors of the King's garden at Paris, for the express use of travellers, we are incompetent to pronounce how far the anonymous translator may have done them justice: but, if we may be allowed to judge from his treatment of M. Dufresne's essay, we conceive that, with some few exceptions, more or less incident to all attempts of the kind, he has exhibited them with tolerable accuracy.

On comparing the English with the French article *Taxidermie*, we have remarked in the former the occasional suppression of a sentence or two, but generally of no very material consequence. In one or two instances, the re-heating of the wires has been overlooked. At page 20., we find the expression, 'I have mounted *one*,' whereas in the original the number is undefined, but obviously plural. "*On trouve deux animaux voisins des hérissons à Madagascar, (les tenrecs,)*" is carelessly rendered, 'Some beautiful species are found at Madagascar.' *Talon, heel,* (of the bear) is confounded with the *claws;* and thus, too, the phrase "*les fers de derrière doivent percer au talon*" is translated, 'the irons of the hind paws must pierce the paws.' "*N'ont pas besoin de beaucoup de préservatif*" is very roundly interpreted, 'do not require *any* preservative:' — "*fait périr leurs œufs*" is Englished by 'kills their *larvæ*:' — *lelong* (along) is inaccurately represented by *the length of,* as *à travers* (across) is translated *along;* — and "*Une boîte doublée en liège*" is not *a double box of cork,* but a box lined with cork. Our readers will scarcely recognize the Hague in *Lahaye;* nor frog-fishes in '*sea-toads;*' nor the great-eared and little-eared owl in the *Great and Small Duke.* At page 120., and again at p. 124., we meet

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meet with a sentence of incomplete structure. 'If these animals are of a nature to be serviceable to domestic economy, or to agriculture, as we have the means of rearing and training them, and thus we add to our resources.' — 'They would occupy too much room, and this operation, which cannot be done well by any one who is not experienced in it, and is much better performed when the skins have arrived at their destination.'

We purposely abstain from any consecutive view of the contents of this little volume, because it is wholly of a technical and mechanical complexion; and they whom it most concerns will naturally have recourse either to the French or the English text.

VOYAGES *and* TRAVELS.

Art. 19. *Travels in France in* 1818, by Lieut. Francis Hall, 14th Light Dragoons, H. P., Author of "Travels in Canada and the United States." 8vo. pp. 434. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Mr. Hall has been made known to the readers of the Monthly Review by the report in our Number for December, 1818, of his "Travels in Canada and the United States;" a country from which he had no sooner returned than he became eager to renew his peregrinations by crossing the Channel, and passing our Gallic neighbours in review. Aware that this field has been often ranged and often described, he took pains to introduce some variety into his route; proceeding from Calais across the country to Rouen, and from Paris to the monastery of La Trappe, Poitiers, Bordeaux, and Toulouse. His table of contents being very meagre, we will contribute the following abstract of his book, as the readiest intimation of its materials.

Calais and Boulogne described; historical notices relative to them. Rouen; the cathedral; abbey of St. Ouen and other public buildings; the museum or collection of paintings. Excursion to Caudebec and Lillebonne.

Paris; the churches; the burying ground; the catacombs; monuments of French sculpture. The Louvre, with its statues and paintings; the Luxemburg; the Palais Royal; the theatres; the opera; the environs of Paris, viz. St. Cloud, St. Germain, Versailles, St. Denis.

Journey from Paris to the monastery of La Trappe; to Tours and Poitiers; description of the churches and public buildings in Poitiers; journey to Angouleme, Saintes, Bordeaux. From Bordeaux to Agen and Toulouse; description of the latter; return to Paris. — Lastly come three chapters of a political nature, viz. on the French character, on Bonaparte, and on the Bourbon government.

Such are the contents of Mr. Hall's present volume; which, like his work on America, discovers an active and sprightly mind, with a share of reading and a capacity of judging that will be found intitled to attention, when viewed in connection with the youth of the author. He is tedious only when incorporating into his

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his pages the traditions of antiquaries, and erroneous only whe he allows himself to draw inferences from hearsay, or from a hasty survey of appearances. Thus, in treating of the national character of our neighbours, he asserts (p. 356.), that a 'French gentleman, though professing himself the friend of a foreigner, will connive at the imposition of his countrymen;' an allegation which we must pronounce to be entirely at variance with the experience of our countrymen resident in France. No persons take up the cause of a foreigner with more ardour or promptitude than the French; and, however unacquainted they may be with business, or injudicious in their efforts, there is certainly no want of zeal in their endeavours to exempt him from imposition. Mr. H. is more accurate when, in adverting to a very delicate and much misunderstood topic, he advances (p. 361.) that 'wherever mutual inclination has cemented a conjugal union, the marriage vow is as faithfully kept in France as in England.' He is farther right in ridiculing (p. 363.) the complex machinery of a number of departments of administration in France; particularly that of passports: from which, after all the declarations, signatures, and correspondence, government knows very little more of a foreigner than he himself chuses to declare.

The author has occasion to describe several towns of France; but his delineations are confined to buildings, scientific collections, and antiquities. Thus, in the populous and commercial cities of Rouen and Bordeaux, the reader meets with no observation as to the productive industry of either place, the extent of its manufactures, or the amount of its shipping. A similar remark applies to Poitiers, where we expected this military traveller to have visited the scene of the victory of *the Black Prince;* and to have ascertained, if it were practicable, the spot where advantages of locality, co-operating with such signal courage and skill, enabled Edward to baffle the attacks of so very superior a force. We were surprized, also, at the readiness with which (p. 256.) Mr. H. accredits the singular assertion that, at the end of the sixteenth century, the population of Tours amounted to 120,000. Speaking generally, the information in this volume, arising from a survey of the country, and from the personal observation of the author, is very limited: but it derives considerable interest from being connected with extracts from old writers, like Froissart, when treating of remote events, and with passages from Mad. de Staël when discussing the politics of the present age. In occurrences, Mr. Hall is a partisan of the French revolution. His observations (p. 379.) on the conduct of Bonaparte, though on the whole too favourable, discover considerable penetration in tracing his habitual disregard of principle less to inherent depravity, than to his early years having been passed amid a tribe of political and military adventurers; from whom his morality would be founded on expediency, and his ideas of greatness be traced by the sword's point.

Art. 20. *Narrative of a Voyage to the Spanish Main,* in the Ship "Two Friends;" the Occupation of Amelia Island, by M'Gregor,

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M'Gregor, &c. — Sketches of the Province of East Florida; and Anecdotes illustrative of the Habits and Manners of the Seminole Indians; with an Appendix, containing a Detail of the Seminole War, and the Execution of Arbuthnot and Ambrister. 8vo. pp. 328. 9s. Boards. Miller. 1819.

The author of this narrative is one of eighty passengers who embarked at Portsmouth on board the *Two Friends*, July 31. 1817, with the view of joining the Spanish insurgents. Having touched at Madeira, the vessel proceeded to the West-Indian archipelago, first came in sight of Barbuda, and, passing in succession the numerous and beautiful cluster of Caribee islands, entered the harbour of the Danish settlement at St. Thomas's, in the morning of September 24. — All the intelligence that could be collected on this spot appeared very discouraging to the adventurers. The revolutionary movements in Venezuela were described as enterprizes of banditti; Bolivar was cried down for his restless turbulence; and the army was represented as torn by schisms, and on the point of disorganization. The recent earthquake of the Caraccas, which nearly destroyed that important city, and ingulphed thirty thousand of its inhabitants, was interpreted by the priesthood to proclaim the anger of Heaven against rebellion, and recalled (it was said) the disaffected in thousands to the royal standard. Not a single fortress on the sea-coast remained in possession of the insurgents, except the island of Margaretta. Angostura, the metropolis of independence, was situated two hundred miles up the Orinoko, and of difficult access. To one of these two ports the vessel was by charter bound to proceed: but she slipped from her anchorage (p. 48.), and clandestinely sailed without paying the harbour-dues, carrying off the clothes and equipment of several of the passengers.

In these circumstances, reports arrived of some intended enterprize of M'Gregor against St. Augustine in Florida: it was said that his followers were to collect on Amelia island; and thither the author, and those passengers who cared not or knew not how to get home, determined to go. On arriving there, however, they learnt that M'Gregor was gone to the Bahamas. Some curious information is recorded concerning the occupation of the island; and the author, who had been bred to the bar, was employed there as counsellor. Thence he went to St. Mary's, and embarked for St. Augustine, which is thus described:

'At the southern extremity of the town stands a large building, formerly a monastery of Carthusian friars, but now occupied as a barrack for the troops of the garrison; at a little distance are four stacks of chimnies, the sole remains of a beautiful range of barracks, built during the occupancy of the British from 1763 to 1783: for three years the 29th regiment was stationed there, and in that time they did not lose a single man. The proverbial salubrity of the climate has obtained for St. Augustine the designation of the Montpelier of North America; indeed such is the general character of the province of East Florida.

'The few families that remain of the ancient settlers in the time of the British remember with regret the contrast the province and

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and the people then presented. Our nation, with a zeal highly laudable and considerate, encouraged the agricultural spirit of the early settlers by parliamentary aids; but the Spaniards, who consider themselves degraded by every act in which personal labour is concerned, and averse to all bodily exertion, suffer the various advantages of soil and climate to pass unheeded; the province is consequently an extensive desert, the face of which industry would soon turn into smiling and luxuriant fields. Great encouragement is given to people willing to cultivate the soil, but a law of exclusion, which deprives the American citizens of a right of entry, retards the progress of population, and rejects the benefits that would otherwise result to the province. The distance of this settlement from Europe, together with the general ignorance of Europeans respecting its advantages, prevents them from availing themselves of the encouraging terms offered to their enterprize.

'The governor, of whom I have already spoken, is about forty-five years of age, of active and vigorous mind, anxious to promote by every means in his power the prosperity of the province confided to his command; his urbanity and other amiable qualities render him accessible to the meanest individual, and justice is sure to follow an appeal to his decision. His military talents are well known and appreciated by his sovereign, and he now holds, in addition to the government of East Florida, the rank of colonel in the royal regiment of Cuba. The clergy consist of the *padre*, (priest of the parish,) a native of Wexford in Ireland; a Franciscan friar, the chaplain to the garrison, and an inferior or *curé*. The social qualities of the *padre*, and the general tolerance of his feelings, render him an acceptable visitant to all his flock: for many hours of agreeable relaxation I was indebted to the good man, whose friendly offices are always ready to be bestowed.—The judge, treasurer, collector, and notary are the principal officers of the establishment, besides a number of those devoted solely to the military occupations of the garrison. The whole of this society is extremely courteous to strangers: they form one family, and those little jealousies, animosities, and bickerings, so disgraceful to our small English communities, do not sully their meetings of friendly chit-chat, called as in Spain *turtulias*. The women are deservedly celebrated for their charms; their lovely black eyes have a vast deal of expression, their complexions a clear brunette: much attention is paid to the arrangement of their hair; at mass they are always well dressed in black silk *basquinas* (petticoats), with the little *mantilla* (black lace veil) over their heads; the men in their military costumes: good order and temperance are their characteristic virtues, but the vice of gambling too often profanes their social haunts, from which even the fair sex are not excluded: indolence is however one of the notorious foibles of the sex, and that neatness and cleanliness, so exquisitely captivating in our fair countrywomen, do not occupy much of their care and attention.

'Two days following our arrival, a ball was given by some of the inhabitants, to which I was invited. The elder couples opened

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opened it with minuets, succeeded by the younger couples displaying their handsome light figures in Spanish dances.

'The governor declined attending their assemblies until they should wipe off the stain fixed upon the province by the polluted presence of the Buccaneers.

'The law excluding the people of the United States from settlement in the province of East Florida, was passed in consequence of their repeated attempts to wrest the province from the dominion of Spain.'

After having returned to St. Mary's, in order to embark for Charlston, the author collected there some particulars concerning the Seminole Indians; which are detailed in the tenth chapter (pp. 166. to 171.), and farther illustrated by an appendix, with documents, relative to the trial and execution of Arbuthnot and Ambrister. This part of the book has historical value, but is too extensive for our limits. From Charlston, the writer proceeded through many provinces of the United States, and bears testimony to the hospitality of the people. He at last embarked, he does not say where, for England.

A supplementary chapter completes the history of the voyage of the *Two Friends*.

This volume supplies that sort of amusement which the adventures of adventurers are adapted to furnish. Occasionally, remarks are interspersed which may be valuable to the geographer; and a clearer idea than usually prevails may be gained from it respecting West-Indian culture and society. The miseries of enterprize, the disappointments of rashness, and the capriciousness of spirit, are painted in striking colours; and it has a tendency to deter the friends of independence from girding on the sword and hoisting the sacred banner.

Art. 21. *Narrative of the Expedition which sailed from England in* 1817, to join the South-American Patriots, &c. By James Hackett, First Lieutenant of the late Venezuela Artillery Brigade. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

Mr. Hackett, like the preceding writer, is one of those young men who, not finding any convenient employment at home, embarked for South America at the close of the year 1817, with the view of attaching themselves to the army of General Bolivar. Some arrangements had been made with Don Luis Mendez, the London agent for the patriots: but the two hundred dollars, at which the outfit and passage were estimated, and the rank of first lieutenant, which was agreed to be given, were only to be realized at head-quarters.

Mr. H. embarked in the ship Britannia on the 2d of December, 1817, and on the 24th January, 1818, arrived at Gustavia, in the island of St. Bartholomew; where it was judged proper to await some communications from Angostura. No easy form of intercourse with General Bolivar presented itself; very discouraging reports prevailed respecting the condition of his treasury, and his prospects of success; and the supercargo of the Britannia deemed it

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it necessary to visit the island of St. Thomas, in order to secure some safe market for goods for which he saw little prospect of being paid by the Independents. Meanwhile, the author took a little tour among the neighbouring islands, and describes St. Martin's at some length, and other places.

On the return of the supercargo from St. Thomas's, he found it necessary not to hazard the property under his care by disposing of it to the Independents, but, as was conditioned in the charter-party, offered to provide a separate conveyance for the passengers, and thus to land the officers and men *without the guns and stores.* This arrangement appeared to give them no chance of penetrating to head-quarters, and was exciting a serious spirit of remonstrance, when the Britannia received orders to quit Gustavia, in consequence of some of the adventurers on board having taken part in a piratical enterprize. Grenada was the next halting-place; and here such distressing information about the patriots was received, that Colonel Gilmore, commanding the author's brigade, disbanded it, and left the officers to get home as they could, or to enlist in other speculations of adventure. This event occasioned a considerable dispersion of the passengers.

The Britannia now returned to St. Bartholomew's, and, being discharged of her dangerous *population,* was suffered to stay: but the supercargo, hearing well of the market at Port au Prince in San Domingo, took her thither, leaving the author behind, with no resource but the humanity of the inhabitants.

'I thought my heart would have burst when I saw the vessel (which from habit I almost considered my home) depart from the bay without me; despair nearly took possession of my mind, and the barren hills of Saint Bartholomew's at this instant appeared more desolate than ever. Whilst in this gloomy reverie, the approach of night and want of nourishment warned me of the necessity of proceeding to the town, in order to procure shelter and refreshment: weak and spiritless thither I accordingly pursued my course, but had only advanced a short way when I met Mr. Vaucrosson, the merchant to whom the Britannia had been consigned, who offered me the use of a waste room in one of his outhouses, of which I gladly accepted. A black woman, who also occupied part of the place of which I had now become a temporary tenant, appeared solicitous by every means in her power to render my situation comfortable; but swarms of musquitoes, which proceeded from a well of stagnant water under the floor, only covered by a few loose boards, prevented the possibility of repose, by their intolerable stinging.

'The following day I spent in endeavouring to devise some means of relief from my present painful condition, but was unable to conceive any practicable plan. Monday was spent in a similar lonely state of fruitless anxiety, but my spirits were considerably cheered on the following morning by the return of my companion, who now likewise became a sharer in Mr. V.'s bounty, and a fellow-lodger in the same ruinous abode; for such it may justly be designated, being merely composed of some old wainscot, which had

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had by time become so disunited as to admit free ingress, in every direction, to the sun's rays.

'Our thoughts were now wholly occupied in forming plans for returning to Europe, but every suggestion for attaining that object proved nugatory, in consequence of our pecuniary inability: a circumstance which even rendered the prospect of ultimate success extremely doubtful and uncertain.'

At length Mr. Hackett went to St. Kitt's, and found the means of embarking in the Hornby, on condition of working his passage home. He complains heavily: but he and his companions ought, we think, to have made greater efforts to reach head-quarters.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 22. *Tributes to Truth.* By Nicholas Littleton. Wherein a few Obscurities made or left by Locke and others are removed, and Philosophy and Common Sense go Hand in Hand. Vol. I. Part I. 4to. pp. 126. Whittakers. 1819.

From a title-page of considerable pretension, and from the handsome style in which this work is printed, we may infer that its appearance is expected to constitute an æra in the history of mental philosophy. How far these expectations are likely to be realized, we may possibly judge from the dedication

'*To the Guardian Spirit of the British Isles.*

'Protecting Spirit! Thou hast ever been regarded as one easily yielding to corporeal pleasures, and more especially to *that* lowest of all, the pleasures of the stomach. Certainly, if thou hadst not been formed for such pleasures, thou wouldest not have been fitted for our protector; but equally certain is it, that a formation fitting thee for other pleasures was infinitely more necessary. Long hast thou been cherished as our protector; but seldom has it been acknowleged, that it is to thee we are chiefly indebted for all those pleasures of the mind, which every British subject must feel, and which is the very height of his enjoyment here.

'Long hast thou been the protector of our mental pleasures! Truth thou hast ever supported! and every British subject, relying on thy ever supporting and unconquerable power, must hail thee with delight,

'*Padstow*, 1819. As does the Author.'

Perhaps many of our readers will already have had enough of Mr. Nicholas Littleton: but, if any should still have a curiosity to see more, we think that they will be amply satisfied by the subsequent passage:

'The ideas represented by the words *end*, *less*, or absence, and *ness*, or existence, are without doubt clear enough. The combination of the three, as in the abstract term end-less-ness, is also clear, but two of these words combined as in the concrete term end-less, expresses an obscure I don't know what, since it is asserted to represent no positive idea; — no idea; although all our knowlege is ideas, and this combination expressive of a part of our know-

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knowlege. With Mr. Locke it would seem that *ness* was a sort of chimney-sweeper, that cleared away the smoke and soot of *less*.

'Hence, I conclude the word *abstraction*
Must ever but vex one,
Who thinks how it is used.
For as to all *abstract* terms
He is right who affirms
That they are but abused,
When we say that they come
From the *concrete* alone
Without any addition.
Concrete, with school-men one and all
Means just what school-boys *adjective* call.
But do we by dry-drags or solution,
Form *Abstracts*? Here they leave one.
Now as we have many endings in *ness*,
In *hood*, *tude*, *th*, and *y*.
All meaning *existences*,
Which we ever to adjectives *tie*,
To form nouns. Hence, of Addition,
I ask, could it ever have been out of fashion?' P. 120.

Whether the writer of such strange jargon as this be fit to correct or illustrate Mr. Locke, we leave all its unfortunate readers to determine for themselves.

Art. 23. *A Letter from an Englishman at St. Omer*, to a Member of Parliament; containing several Particulars relative to the Queen, during her Stay at that Place; and some Account of her Chamberlain, Bartolomeo Pergami. Together with Observations on several of the Arguments made use of by Her Majesty's Advocates. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Chapple.

We do not perceive any circumstances of importance communicated in this letter, and, if they *were* material, anonymous authority is no authority. The pamphlet is, however, not indifferently written, and some points are well and fairly argued: but others are not impartially examined, and betray a decided bias against the illustrious accused. The lamentable discussion at this time proceeding, also, deprives such pamphlets of any interest, facts alone being now important. A note on the last page seems incompatible with the alleged residence of the author; his distance from London, and the time of the occurrence to which he there refers, not assimilating.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are obliged to postpone our notice of the letters of various Correspondents.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. XCII. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains numerous important *Foreign Articles*, with the *Title* and *Index* for the Volume.

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THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1820.

ART. I. *Statistical Annals;* embracing Views of the Population, Commerce, Navigation, Fisheries, Public Lands, Post-Office Establishment, Revenues, Mint, Military and Naval Establishments, Expenditure, Public Debt and Sinking Fund, of the United States of America: founded on official Documents, commencing 4th March, 1789, and ending 20th April, 1818. By Adam Seybert, M.D. a Member of the House of Representatives of the United States, from the State of Pennsylvania; Member of the American Philosophical Society, &c. &c. 4to. pp. 808. Published at Philadelphia; and sold in London by Longman and Co. Price 3l. 13s. 6d.

ART. II. *A Statistical, Political, and Historical Account of the United States of North America,* from the Period of their first Colonization to the present Day. By D. B. Warden, late Consul for the United States at Paris, &c. &c. 8vo. 3 Vols. 2l. 2s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Longman and Co., &c. 1819.

ART. III. *Travels through the United States of America,* in the Years 1806 and 1807, and 1809, 1810, and 1811; including an Account of Passages betwixt America and Britain, and Travels through various Parts of Britain, Ireland, and Canada; with Corrections and Improvements till 1815; illustrated by coloured Maps and Plans. By John Melish. With an Appendix, containing a Letter from Clements Burleigh, Esq., to Irish Emigrants removing to America, and Hints by the Shamroc Society, New York, to Emigrants from Europe. 8vo. pp. 648. Printed at Philadelphia; and sold in London by Cowie and Co. Price 18s.

ART. IV. *America and her Resources;* or a View of the Agricultural, Commercial, Manufacturing, Financial, Political, Literary, Moral, and Religious Capacity and Character of the American People. By John Bristed, Counsellor at Law, Author of the "Resources of the British Empire." 8vo. pp. 504. 14s. Boards. Colburn.

THE importance of the United States, both as forming a principal member of the political commonwealth and as constituting a place of refuge in the present commercial distress of the old world, has induced us to devote occasionally

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large portions of our work to a report of new publications on this subject; among which our readers will recollect the travels of Mr. Palmer and Mr. Hall, (see our Numbers for November and December, 1818,) and more particularly the productions of Mr. Birkbeck and Mr. Fearon (February and December, 1818): whose observations bore a more direct reference to the interest of emigrating Europeans. The value of the several volumes now before us is not inferior to that of any preceding description of the United States; and, as the motives for acquiring an accurate knowlege of this rapidly increasing community remain in full force, whether we look to those of our countrymen who mean to emigrate, or to the less necessitous class who, remaining at home, contemplate a commercial intercourse with America, we propose to enter at considerable length into an account of that country, under the heads of *Climate*, *Territorial Aspect*, *Commerce*, *Population*, *Manners*, and, lastly, *The Advantages of particular States for Emigrants from Europe.* The chief cause of our own present distress, and that of our continental neighbours, is not scarcity, and still less a rise of price, whether in produce or manufactures; it is to be found in the general fall in the value of labour, consequent on the *désœuvrement* of so many hundred thousands of individuals by the disbanding of armies and the cessation of government-purchases. Europe evidently requires an opening for that overflow of population which, during twenty-five years, found employment at the hands of its respective governments. Much may, we believe, be done by the direction of capital and labour to domestic improvement: but that plan, under present circumstances, is more applicable to continental states, while to the British dominions a trans-Atlantic outlet seems more particularly appropriate.

We begin by a brief notice of the books under review.—Dr. Seybert's quarto comprehends a great collection of statistical tables, compiled partly from the publications of former writers, such as Pitkin, and partly from new documents obtained from the public offices. Its principal heads relate to population, commerce, navigation, fisheries, the revenue, the army, the navy, the public debt, and the public lands: on all of which, full and explicit tables are given: but, as a number of them are uninteresting to the general reader, the book is valuable chiefly for the purpose of reference. Many of the tables are of a size which required the full extent of a quarto page: but, as to others, there has been an unnecessary waste of space, and, of course, increase of price. The work is not a digest, but a selection of documents; and Dr. S. has not

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not been always careful to supply the blanks attendant on a mere copy of official papers. He might have attempted a valuation of the annual imports into the United States down to 1817, possessed as he was of a knowlege of the specific articles; and he might likewise, without much difficulty, have exhibited, for two years subsequent to the peace of 1815, a tabular sketch of the exports and imports generally, on the clear and instructive plan followed by the American government for the years 1802, 1803, 1804. His work, however, is a very interesting collection; and its ponderous mass is rendered accessible by a copious index and a detailed table of contents.

Mr. Warden's production is also of great extent; comprizing the substance of a number of the statistical tables printed in the work of Dr. S., but more particularly appropriated to a geographical description of the states (now twenty in number) which compose the American Union. These local details, embracing the climate, produce, commerce, manufactures, civil constitution, and history of each state, in succession, occupy the chief parts of Vols. I. and III., and the whole of Vol. II. The observations of a more general cast, we mean those which are applicable to the Union at large, form the preamble and the conclusion of the work, and relate to the following heads: — extent of territory; aspect of the country; climate; population; manufactures; commerce; revenue; expenditure; government; education; and history; the whole concluding with a series of observations on the Indians.

The name of Mr. Warden is already known to our readers by his publication (Appendix to vol. lxxx. p. 543.) on Mercantile Consulships; on which we had occasion to make several animadversions, as well as to notice an affectation of erudition by no means suited to the plain character of the subject. Whether Mr. W. has profited by our admonitions, or has called in the aid of a literary friend on the other side of the Atlantic, certain it is that his present performance is devoid of the Gallicisms so frequent in its predecessor; and that, though the matter might have been more carefully condensed, we now find no cause for reprehension on the grounds just mentioned. We must add, but with no wish to detract from the substantial merits of the book, that a great part of the details, like those of Dr. S., are of too minute or rather too local a character to interest the majority of English readers: being important only to the inhabitants of the United States, or to those Europeans who contemplate a removal thither. The appendages to the work consist of a small but useful map of the United States, and a plan of the city of Washington.

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The publication of Mr. Melish, though inferior in size and importance to the preceding, requires a longer explanatory notice; on account of its more immediate interest to our countrymen, and from the want of method unavoidably attendant on the journal-form. Educated to mercantile business in Scotland, Mr. M. proceeded to the United States in 1806 to form commercial connections, and traversed an extensive tract of country; keeping a circumstantial record of his observations, and comparing the information collected on the spot with that which was afforded by a reference to maps and gazetteers. His table of contents being very diffuse, (above twelve closely printed pages,) and requiring to be put in a much shorter form before any accurate idea can be obtained of his route, we present the following abstract of it.

Departure from Glasgow in 1806; arrival in Savannah; journey into the inland-part of Georgia and South Carolina; voyage to New York; that city described; journey to the New England States, viz. Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusets, New Hampshire, and Vermont; Journey to New Jersey, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Baltimore, Washington, Virginia, North Carolina, Charlestown, South Carolina, and Georgia. Return to England in 1807: tour through the North of England, Scotland, and part of Ireland. Second visit to America in 1809; Philadelphia; journey to the Western States; Pittsburg; voyage down the Ohio through part of the states of Ohio, Kentucky, Indiana, and Tennessee; journey to the north; Lake Erie; Upper Canada; return through the province of New York.

Many of the details given by Mr. Melish are minute, and apparently unimportant: but, in the case of an unknown country, we are always ready to pardon prolixity in return for information; and to preserve our good humour with a writer, who, though little qualified (see p. 534.) to form general conclusions about trade, and still less (see his remark, p. 496. on the rivers Mississippi and St. Lawrence) to judge in questions of natural philosophy, is evidently *pains-taking*, and, we believe, accurate as to all that fell under his personal observation. His style is that of a plain man of business, who professes no great extent of reading, and disclaims all pretensions to high sounding phrases; while he records, with clearness and precision, such useful matters as the wages of labour, the price of provisions, the position of a town or village, the navigation of a river, or the aspect of a particular district.

We come in the last place to Mr. Bristed, a writer of much higher pretensions; who stands forwards at once as a political philo-

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philosopher, dealing boldly in comprehensive conclusions, and introducing particulars only as far as they are necessary to illustrate his general reasoning. He treats of the United States under the following heads: Territory and population; rivers; canals; roads. Commerce; manufactures; taxation; national resources. Form of government; distribution of power; laws and law officers. Literature; education; national manners; morals; mode of living. The book concludes with a chapter on the present state of Europe as connected with the prospects of America.

The discussion of these topics gives Mr. B. frequent occasion to introduce comparisons between an old and a newly settled community; — between the United States and Europe; — or more properly between the United States and England. In these as in other parts of his book he discovers an extent of erudition, and a capacity of reasoning, which would do credit to a writer accustomed to the most enlightened society. The principal objection to his work arises from its habitual diffuseness, a frequency of repetition, and, in not a few occasions, (as when treating, p. 470. of the affairs of France,) that want of accuracy which seems inseparable from the impressions of an ardent mind, when poured forth without a deliberate investigation of facts, or a rigid scrutiny of evidence. We quote, for example, the ensuing passage:

'The United States possess unrivalled advantages for promoting a rapid increase of their inhabitants, and also for rearing a most efficient population; so that, if America shall spring forward during the next with the same velocity and force with which she has moved progressively during the last fifty years, she will then whiten every sea with her commercial canvass; bear her naval thunders in triumph to earth's extremest verge; peer above the sovereignty of other nations; and cause the elder world to bow its venerable head, white with the hoar of ages, beneath the paramount power and influence of this younger daughter of the civilized globe.'

The praises bestowed on the Americans in this and other passages (see p. 461.) would excite the smile of an English reader, were it not probable that Mr. B. judged it proper to indulge largely in panegyric, in order that he might be permitted to tell his countrymen some unwelcome truths in undisguised language; and assuredly, whether he dwells on their deficient knowlege, on their over-weening vanity, or on their never-ending changes, he takes no pains to soften the keenness of his animadversions. The whole volume, indeed, partakes of the spirit of amplification, and of that sweeping and absolute tone which characterizes a man more accustomed to the effusions of public speaking than to the deliberate conclusions of closet-research, or the sober lessons of practical life.

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After this brief report of the respective merits of the publications under review, we shall offer the proposed statistical sketch of the United States.

Face of the Country. — Landscapes in America present, in general, much less variety than in Europe; the view all around exhibiting a succession of woods, intersected only occasionally by a river, or by glades containing villages and corn-fields. The objects that afford gratification, when the eye has become reconciled to the monotony of the scene, are the vast extent of the forests and the magnitude of many of the rivers. One of the primary considerations in a country, next to soil and climate, is the extent of its internal navigation. If we cast our eyes on the map of France, we shall find a great part of her territory remote from the sea, and very imperfectly provided with navigable rivers: the same fact prevails with regard to the interior of Germany, and in a great measure to Russia, level as is her surface, and well adapted to the eventual extension of canal-navigation. How different is this from England, which is intersected by so many canals; and from Ireland, of which no part is above fifty miles distant from the sea. The United States, without possessing all the "navigable capacities" ascribed to them by sanguine writers, have more inlets and channels of water-communication than we might expect in so large a tract of continent. Let our readers imagine a country in form nearly square, but in extent fully four times as large as France, of which the eastern boundary is the Atlantic, and the western is the Mississippi. This wide region has only one great range of mountains, extending from N. E. to S. W., at a distance of from two to three hundred miles from the Atlantic: from these descend a number of navigable rivers, flowing on the one side to the east and on the other to the west, opening an access to the interior by water from either frontier, and leaving an inland-space of little more than one hundred miles, through which the communication must be by roads. The formation of the latter, also, will not be a task to be compared to the Alpine labours at Mont Cenis or the Simplon, the height of the mountains to be traversed being scarcely any where above three thousand feet.

The southern boundary of the United States has, like the eastern, the advantage of a maritime position, and extends along the Gulf of Mexico: while the northern frontier adjoins the great lakes of Canada, which, though fast locked by ice in winter, are at other seasons easy of navigation, and may, without great labour, be made to communicate by canals, with rivers flowing on one side towards the Mississippi, and on

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the other towards the Atlantic. In the navigation of these rivers, a complete change has been produced by the application of steam; which has doubled and more than doubled the value of the vast territory along the Mississippi, the current of which could not be ascended by rowing without a very painful sacrifice of time and labour.

Canals. — The elevation of the long range of mountains, (Alleghany, or Apalachian,) described above, is too great to admit of their being intersected by canals; and a communication of this nature can take place only at their northern extremity, from the navigable rivers in the province of New York to the great lakes of the St. Lawrence: there the locality presents no formidable difficulty, and canals have been accordingly in a course of execution since 1817. It will be practicable also, at a future date, to form in Georgia, at the southern extremity of the mountains, canals to connect the navigable rivers flowing to the east with those which run to the west and south. Of smaller canals, executed by the respective states, a few have been completed, and more are in progress. Among the former, are several intended for continuing the navigation of the Potowmac by a succession of cuts or canals parallel to those parts of the course of the river which, from falls or rapids, cannot be rendered navigable: these, short as they are, have been attended with much expence. The largest canal as yet excavated in the States is one of twenty-eight miles in length, uniting the waters of the Middlesex river to those of the harbour of Boston: it is adapted to boats of twenty-four tons, and cost about 120,000l.

Roads. — In this respect, also, the United States labour under all the disadvantages of a recent settlement. In a country of such extent and of so thin a population, many of the channels of communication are necessarily little more than lines or draughts of roads, in which the marshy part is kept in travelling condition by means of ditches, and steep ascents are avoided by winding around eminences. Only the turnpike-roads are formed with stones or gravel; and the number of these, though still very limited, is annually on the increase: a variety of associations, under the name of "Turnpike-companies," having been formed in the different states.

The expence of road-making has, from differences of locality, been very various, amounting in some places to only 100l., but in others to 200l. and 400l. per mile. The great coast-road from N. to S. will, when completed, communicate with all the principal sea-ports. Next to this in importance are the roads from E. to W., which connect, or will at a subsequent date connect, the Eastern and Western States. At present, the

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chief intercourse is by the road from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, a space of 300 miles; from Baltimore to Pittsburg, the distance is only 250; and from Baltimore to a navigable part of the Ohio, not above 207 miles. It is also under consideration to form several roads, which, though of no great length, will be expensive in execution, because they must be made through the mountain-country situated between the navigable waters of the east and of the west. Their average length will not exceed 100 miles each, but the expence is computed at 1500l. or 2000l. per mile. In one district, viz. from Fort Cumberland near the Potowmac to Brownsville on the Monongahela, on the opposite side of the mountains, the distance is only seventy-two miles; and it deserves remark that this is the only land-carriage necessary on this route all the way from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. — The bridges in the United States are generally formed of wood; and their number, like that of the roads, is on the increase, but it is still far short of what the convenience of travelling requires.

Climate. — At a time when the health and comfort of so many of our emigrant countrymen depend on a correct knowlege of the climate of Canada, and of the United States, the subject cannot be too attentively investigated, or too minutely explained. Few persons are aware of the surprizing difference between America and England, both in the cold of winter and the heat of summer. Italy and the south of France are too warm for an English constitution: but, even in the northern part of the United States, the summer-heats surpass those of Rome.

	Lat.	Mean temperature of the year.	of three winter-months.	of three summer-months.
	° ′	°	°	°
Rome,	41 35	60.4	45.8	75.2
New York,	40 40	53.8	29.8	79.2

This tabular sketch, brief as it is, places in a clear light the extremes of the American climate. The greatest difference is in the degree of cold, but on this we are not anxious to enlarge because it is not so unfavourable to health. A similar tendency to extremes prevails throughout almost the whole 20 degrees (from N. lat. 29° to 49°) comprized in the territory of the United States; so much, indeed, that the cold of winter and the heat of summer are each accounted as intense as the cold or the heat of an European parallel higher by ten degrees. To convey an idea of the climate of the United States, it is common to make three or four

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four distinctions of temperature. From lat. 41° to the northward, the frost lasts generally four months, viz. from the end of November to the end of March, and is very severe; while the summer-heats are great during July and August. This district comprizes a very interesting portion of America, viz. the States of New England, part of the extensive state of New York, and the chief part of Canada. — The second division of climate is from lat. 41° to 38°, comprehending Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, and a part of Virginia. In these provinces, the frost, though very sharp, lasts only a few weeks: but the summer-heats are still greater than in the country to the northward, beginning in May and not ending till September: fruit and corn ripen about six weeks earlier than in England. —A third division comprizes the country extending to the south of lat. 38°; viz. a part of Virginia, and the whole of the Carolinas, Georgia, Florida, and the newly acquired provinces extending westward to the Mississippi. In this very extensive tract, the summers are long and oppressive, the heat commencing in April and continuing till November: the winter is of short duration, but exhibits very rapid transitions; and, in general, the changes from cold to heat, and *vice versâ*, along the whole of the maritime states, are much more rapid than in Europe.

The climate of the inland-states is in several respects different, extremes both of heat and cold being less predominant. In the country adjoining the Ohio, the cold season does not continue above seven or eight weeks; and the frost, though at times very intense, is not uninterrupted. This comparative mildness of temperature, which arises probably from the greater prevalence of southerly winds, is accounted equal to a difference of three degrees of latitude when compared with the Atlantic States; and it is happily felt as far north as the lakes Erie and Ontario, where the operation of watermills is seldom stopped by the frost, and the cattle subsist in the woods throughout the winter. Of the summer-season in the Western States, we have a circumstantial notice from Mr. Melish, who kept a diary when travelling in that direction, and marked regularly the state of the thermometer at noon. During August, he found it vary from 74° to 91° in Pittsburg and the country to the westward; in September, in a tract farther to the west and south, it ranged from 68° to 84°; and in October, during which he proceeded in a northerly direction, it was between 58° and 80°; in November between 32° and 60°. The result of this and other observations is that the difference between the Atlantic and the Western States is less in the absolute quantity of heat than in its more equal distri-

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distribution, the summer in the latter being of long continuance but less oppressive than to the eastward. To his diary for the Western States, Mr. Melish has added (p. 526.) a register of the weather kept in one of the districts best adapted to an European constitution; viz. the western part of the State of New York adjoining Upper Canada, where the cold of December and January was from 18° to 31°, while the heats of summer (June, July, August,) were from 71° to 92°. Even here, however, the flies and other winged insects are more troublesome than in the south of France; and, though we readily admit that the proportion of sunshine and of unclouded weather is greater in the United States than in Europe, we cannot but consider the hazard to health from climate, and from the comparative want of medical advice, as the most serious of the disadvantages to which emigrants are subject.

Mr. Bristed decidedly contradicts the assertions of two French writers, Turreau and Beaujour, (see our Appendix to vol. lxxviii. p. 484., and vol. lxxix. p. 507.) with regard to the insalubrity of the United States; alleging that, in the least healthy provinces, viz. the Carolinas and Georgia, the deaths are not above one in thirty-five; in the Union generally, one in forty; and in the healthiest districts, one in fifty-six. He admits the prevailing want of fresh complexion, but maintains, as does Mr. Warden, (vol. i. p. 280.) that the average length of life is somewhat greater than in Europe: but this is an advantage in which foreigners must not expect to participate; and which, if true as to natives, must be owing not to climate but to the general exemption from that penury which bears so hard on the poor throughout various parts of Europe.

Diseases. — Intermitting fever is one of the most prevailing scourges of the United States, particularly in districts recently cleared. Unfortunately, the tracts most inviting to settlers from the facility of their cultivation, and from their vicinity to water-communication, are in general the least healthy. It is a curious fact that marsh miasmata are frequently as much felt on the top of an adjacent hill as on the borders of the marsh from which they proceed. Fever and ague are now almost banished from New England: but they are the torment of the inhabitants of alluvial regions in the Western States; and this will probably continue to be the case until the country shall have become generally settled, after which the Western States will, doubtless, be on the whole healthy, the extent of unwholesome situations bearing no proportion to those that are dry and salubrious. The aggregate result is that the

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the United States are subject to violent changes of temperature, which affect the perspiration, and engender disorders in the system: but it may also be assumed as a fair conclusion that the diseases so alarming to emigrants, and in various cases so fatal, arise less from climate than from local peculiarities. Thus rheumatism is common in the maritime states, owing partly to the sudden alternation of heat and cold, and partly to the carelessness of the inhabitants in exposing themselves to wet and cold, or sleeping in the woods: but in the larger towns, where, as in European cities, an equal temperature is kept up in the houses, rheumatism is not more frequent than in England. In the north-eastern states, consumption is considered as prevalent, but not in a higher degree than in our country. The ravages of the yellow fever were confined to close streets in commercial towns, and have not visited even them since 1803. On the other hand, the southern states, the Carolinas, Georgia, and Tennessee, are evidently not suited to European constitutions: even on American settlers, the climate bears hard; and the chief consolation is that in the worst districts some situations, which are dry and exposed to the winds, can be made to afford a safe retreat from autumnal disease. In chusing these, the great object is to fix on a spot which the vapours rising from the adjacent vallies are least likely to visit in their ascent.

Principal Towns of the United States.—Beginning from the northward, we have, in latitude 42° 23′, Boston, a town which dates nearly two centuries back; and in its streets, some of which are narrow and crooked, it bears a resemblance to the old towns of England. The modern part, however, has all the breadth and regularity of an American city: the houses are, in general, built of brick; and the population approaches to 40,000. The portion of the town which lies near the sea is low: but the central part is elevated; the harbour is safe and spacious; the foreign trade is very considerable; and ship-building is carried on to a great extent. If in rapidity of increase Boston must give place to towns in the southward, it surpasses all of them in the material point of education; and most of its inhabitants are well-informed, sober, and industrious.

New York (north latitude 40° 40′) is the great resort of newly arrived foreigners, and has for some time taken the lead of Philadelphia with regard to population, in consequence of its highly favourable situation: its harbour is excellent; and its rivers give it the command of the trade of the interior to a great extent. The streets in the old part of the town are narrow and crooked, and some of the houses are

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are constructed of wood: but all the modern additions are laid out in a superior taste; and the great street called Broadway may challenge comparison with almost any one in Europe. The objections to New York, as a residence, are the want of squares, of public walks, and of a stream of fresh water to clean the streets and purify the air.

Philadelphia (north latitude 39° 57′), until lately the chief city in the Union, adjoins the great river Delaware, and is built with much regularity; the streets being all wide, and crossing each other at right angles. It contains scarcely any wooden buildings; the dwelling-houses being formed of brick, and some of the public edifices of marble. Like New York, it supplies an extensive back country with merchandise: but the less easy access to the Atlantic has retarded the extension of its foreign trade. The latter is, however, progressive, and Philadelphia has several substantial advantages: provisions and house-rent are cheaper than at New York; and the streets are kept pure by a regular current of water, the city being about fifty or sixty feet above the level of the Delaware.

Washington is one of the few capitals which, like Constantinople, owes its situation to premeditated choice; and the consequence is that, whether in beauty or convenience of locality, it scarcely yields to the Turkish metropolis. It stands at the confluence of two rivers, whose united waters are here swelled by the tide, and assume a width of a mile, or more: the adjacent hills also conferring on it a very picturesque effect. As yet, however, Washington is a city only in outline; for, though the streets are distinctly laid out, the houses are very thinly scattered, and the population barely exceeds 12,000. George-town, at a short distance westward, is an increasing place; and Alexandria, situated seven miles farther down the river, and fitter of course for the reception of large merchant-vessels, has about 9000 inhabitants, with a considerable foreign trade.

The other towns of consequence in the Atlantic States are Baltimore and Charlestown: but we must confine our farther notices to the Western States. — New Orleans (in lat. 29° 57′) is situated for mercantile purposes still more fortunately than New York; the Mississippi giving it an extent of water-communication to the north, east, and west, which is hardly paralleled in any part of the world. Its population (nearly 40,000) has been tripled in the present century, and would increase still more rapidly were not the situation unhealthy and often even fatal to foreigners. Cincinnati, which stands inland ten degrees north of New Orleans, is remarkable not for its extent but for the rapidity of its erection, a town of 8000 inhabitants

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ants having been built in the midst of a desert within the last ten or twelve years. Its streets are wide, its markets spacious, and its public edifices and many of its private buildings substantial, and even elegant. It is placed on the northern bank of the Ohio, and the lower part of it is unfortunately within the reach of the spring floods; an error which is too common in America, where even health is overlooked in a solicitude for mercantile accommodation. Nothing, however, can exhibit a more busy or more cheerful scene than this town: the resort of the country people, the number of boats on the river, the activity of the traders and manufacturers, all concurring to give an interesting appearance to a place which a traveller little expects to find amid these "western wilds."

Very few stone-buildings occur in the towns or even in the cities of the United States; the chief materials being brick and painted wood. Without much pretensions to elegance, the American towns are well aired, and almost all intersected by avenues and gardens. Boston, New York, and Baltimore, resemble English cities, but Norfolk, Charlestown, and New Orleans, are more like the towns in the West Indies. The market-towns and villages of the United States are generally built as in England, and form one long street: but the houses are separated from each other by a garden or orchard; a plan which is conducive both to health and to safety from fire.

Population.—The population of the United States is at present (1820) above 11,000,000, of whom almost a fifth are people of colour; the negroes held as slaves in the United States amounting to fully 1,700,000; the free people of colour to above 200,000. Population appears to become double here in every twenty-three years, and to owe but a small part of this increase to foreign settlers; the latter not having averaged (Seybert, p. 28.) above 4000 persons previously to 1794, and little exceeding that number until 1815. Since the latter year the want of employment in Europe, as well in armies and navies as in agriculture and manufactures, has materially increased the number of new settlers; without, however, carrying it beyond an annual average of sixteen or eighteen thousand, of whom the half or more than the half come from Great Britain and Ireland.

Passengers arrived in ten of the principal ports of the United States during the year 1817:

From Great Britain and Ireland,	11,277	British North America,	2,901
Germany, Swisserland, and Holland,	4,161	The West Indies generally,	1,569
France,	1,235	Italy,	58
		All other countries,	321

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The total of the above exceeds 20,000, but they include passengers of all descriptions; viz. American citizens on their return, and temporary visitors as well as settlers from Europe. — Marriages in the United States take place much earlier than in England, not being checked by any dread of an inability to bring up a family: they are computed to average six births, of which four are reared; a far more favourable proportion than that which is found to prevail in most parts of Europe. As yet the number of inhabitants in the square mile is very small, being only from five to ten in the western and south-west states; the Atlantic states vary from fifteen to twenty and thirty; while, in the old settled and improved provinces of Rhode Island and Connecticut, they approach to sixty, or one-third of the density of English population.

Manners. — The great body of the American people resemble the English, but with considerable modifications, arising from difference of government, climate, and condition of society. The elections to almost all public offices are made by the people; which, added to the ease of obtaining subsistence, has diffused a sense of personal importance unknown to the lower ranks in any other country. In the northern, or New England states, the population is almost all of English descent; in the provinces of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, the descendants of German and Dutch settlers form an intermixture: but their language, habits, and customs, are progressively yielding to the predominance of the English. The New England states, without containing the largest towns, are the most generally improved part of the Union: property there is very equally divided; the clergy are paid by government; elementary schools are established in every township; and scarcely a native of the country is unable to read, write, and cast accounts. The advantages possessed by the Scotish peasantry in parish-schools, and in an intimate connection between the clergy and the people, are both enjoyed in the New England states, with the addition of political power, though united unfortunately with the evils of the poor-law system of England. In the middle states, the population is more mixed, and religion is not supported by law: elementary schools are less numerous; and the distinction of rich and poor is more broadly marked than in New England: the slaves begin here to be numerous. As to the southern states, religion there also receives no aid from law; elementary schools are few; duelling and gaming are prevalent vices; and labour is performed chiefly by negroes; the odious and impolitic practice of slavery being prohibited only in Pennsylvania and the New England states. In the morals of the free Blacks, some improve-

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improvement has been made by the efforts of the Quakers, who have been instrumental in establishing schools and churches, with men of colour as teachers and ministers. Generally speaking, morals undergo a relaxation in the United States as we pass from the north and east to the south and west; with the important qualification, however, that this declension, as far as it regards females, is confined to women of colour; 'for in no country under the canopy of heaven,' says Mr. Bristed, 'do ladies hold a higher rank in virtue than in the United States: those domestic infidelities which occasion dishonour in Europe, are *almost never* heard of in America.' Marriages there are usually contracted from disinterested motives, individual fortunes being seldom such as to prompt to a connection when the parties are not personally attached.

An Englishman arriving at an American sea-port is struck with the number of coloured people, and with the habit, so general among the whites, of smoking cigars. He feels the want of comfort most when travelling in the southern and western states. At the inns in these countries, every thing, says Mr. Birkbeck, 'is public by day and night; whatever be the number of guests, they eat in mass and sleep in mass, the rooms being crowded with beds like the ward of an hospital; and one side of the house being allotted to the male, the other to the female travellers.' The inn-keepers are far from overflowing with civility, being independent of their customers, and their pride not unfrequently rouzed by exaggerated comparisons made by travellers of the marvellous superiority of European inns. A reproach of more consequence regards the deficient cleanliness of the inhabitants of the southern and western states; who, in that respect, are far behind the English or their own countrymen of the North. Maryland may be considered as a medium between the northern and the southern division of the states; having to the North a population and mode of culture resembling those of England, while in the South both the people and the manners approach to those of the West Indies.

In person, the Americans are generally tall, with complexions devoid of colour, and apparently indicative of a relaxed habit. The ease with which subsistence is procured makes not only the labour of the lower ranks high-priced, and their attendance uncertain, but operates as a great deduction from the personal exertion of the higher classes. Those loungers, who in Europe are seen only occasionally, abound in American towns and villages. — In political feeling, a great difference prevails among the inhabitants of the different states; the maritime districts calling for a preference to

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to navigation and foreign trade, while the planters and farmers of the interior expect similar advantages for agriculture.

The common amusements of the Americans are theatrical exhibitions, balls, routes, and the sports of the field: — players, dancing-masters, singers, and musicians, are almost all imported from Europe. Mr. Bristed quotes (p. 249.) with much complacency the opinion of Mr. Jackson, our late diplomatist; who, after considerable observation of national character both in England and on the continent of Europe, declared that "among no people had he seen such decided materials of national greatness; the Americans being both a high-minded and a right-minded people." Mr. B. is, however, by no means blind to the defects of his countrymen; and he laments, in particular, the vice so prevalent throughout almost every state, except those of New England, immoderate drinking; a vice affecting not only the labourers generally, but too many farmers, merchants, and others of the middling class. In New York, he says, an alarming increase of pauperism, drunkenness, and general profligacy has taken place; and the number of houses licensed there to sell spirits is nearly 3000, while in the whole of London they do not exceed 4300. In the dreadful cold of January, 1817, the number of poor who were destitute of the first necessaries far exceeded that of any former period of distress, not fewer than 15,000 individuals having then received aid from public and private charity. A number of them were foreigners from Europe: but the "leprosy of wickedness" has tainted the natives in an alarming degree, in consequence of the extension of the poor-law system; and it is a curious fact that a number of these profligate paupers are free and independent voters at the elections.

The farther drawbacks on the morality of the Americans are to be sought in the slavery of the southern and western states; in the lotteries so frequent in these and in the middle states; and, perhaps, in the too general substitution of imprisonment for capital punishment. Of delinquents in the United States, the majority are low Irish, or free blacks; next come foreigners other than Irish; and, lastly, Americans, for one principal crime — forgery; in which the United States produce a greater number of audacious and ingenious criminals than any country in Europe. Another source of delinquency, and one that infects the middling class, is to be sought in the very imperfect state of the commercial code.

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'The laws in this country (says Mr. Bristed, p. 286.) generally favour the debtor, at the expence of the creditor, and so far encourage dishonesty. The number of insolvents in every State is prodigious, and continually increasing. They very seldom pay any part of their debts, but get discharged by the State insolvent acts with great facility, and secrete what property they please for their own use, without the creditors being able to touch a single stiver. There is no bankrupt-law in the United States, and no appeal in these matters from the State to the federal courts; whence in every State the insolvent acts operate as a general jail-delivery of all debtors, and a permanent scheme by which creditors are defrauded of their property. The British merchants and manufacturers who have trusted our people doubtless understand this.'

The number of insolvencies in America is almost incredible; and those of the city of New York alone exceeded 6000 in the year 1811. Of the exports from Great Britain from 1815 to 1818, Mr. B. computes (we hope erroneously), that our merchants have not received one-fourth; — a piracy supported, if not created, by the system of insolvent laws. Why should not Congress, he asks, pass an uniform bankrupt law, and give the foreign creditors some chance of an occasional dividend? At present, every State has its own insolvent law, and the creditor is often obliged to place his hopes on the personal honesty of his debtor. The habitual rate of expenditure, also, is more lavish in the United States than among the corresponding classes in Europe, and in very many cases exceeds the regular income of the individual. American ladies, however exemplary in other respects, are far from economical; and Mr. Bristed says that it requires an unusual share of moral nerve in the master of a family to practise frugality, amid their solicitations and the extravagance of the neighbourhood. This habit, and the non-existance of the right of primogeniture, prevent the accumulation of fortunes, and may be almost said to insure the extinction of such as have been acquired by the long continued industry of an individual.

Education. — We have already reported that the United States surpass most other nations in elementary instruction; nearly all of the provinces having established district schools; and there being hardly a native, in the New England States at least, who cannot read, write, and cast accounts. How different this from the condition of the lower orders on the Continent of Europe, as developed in Mr. Brougham's speech on Education in June last; and even in several parts of England! 'Were the lower orders in England and Ireland as generally instructed as in Scotland, the moral power

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of the British empire,' says Mr. Bristed, 'would be quadrupled in the course of fifty years.' His encomiums on American education, however, go no farther than the elementary part: the grammar-schools being in general deplorably defective, and the masters being frequently foreign adventurers, or youths who are themselves studying law, medicine, or divinity, and teach merely to defray their own expences. In colleges, or central schools, the United States abound: but the teachers are too scantily paid, and too closely confined, to be able to execute original or extensive literary undertakings; and there are no fellowships, or literary sinecures, which allow the command of leisure to the possessor. Of the various colleges in the Union, amounting in all to the number of fifty, the best endowed is Harvard, in Massachusets, which has thirteen professorships and above four hundred students; next come Yale college, with about three hundred; Princeton, in New Jersey, with two hundred; Dartmouth, in New Hampshire, with about one hundred and fifty; and Columbia, in New York, with only one hundred students. None of these have a regular course of lectures on moral philosophy, or belles lettres; and the clergy are eager to monopolize the professional chairs: although their education is, in general, confined to the acquisition of Latin, a little Greek, and their own peculiar system of theology. The science of mathematics, and this science alone, is well taught in the American colleges. The consequence is that the American youth seldom recover the deficiency of the grammar-schools: they generally go to college when fourteen years old, and at eighteen begin their studies for law, divinity, or medicine; or they enter a mercantile counting-house. Nothing is more usual among them than to talk of Aristides or Herodotus; and Dr. Johnson's sarcasm that "learning here is like bread in a besieged town, — every man has a mouthful and no one a bellyfull," is much more applicable to the United States than to Scotland.

In no country do young men enter into active life at so early an age. If Lord Bacon felt that the full growth of the mind was retarded by beginning the exercise of a profession at the age of thirty, what would he have said of the youth of America, who assume this responsibility at the age of twenty or twenty-one? This statement applies to almost every class, — to lawyers, physicians, clergymen, and merchants; who, immersing themselves thus early in the minute details of practical routine, prevent the due developement of their intellectual faculties. 'Hence,' adds Mr. Bristed, 'a perpetual pruriency of prattle on all subjects, without a thorough

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fathoming of the depth of any one.' It is, he adds, too prevalent a fashion in the United States to rail at studious habits, and to talk of trusting to the energy of native genius, which must not be stifled by poring over books. The elocution in the American colleges, Mr. Bristed observes, is sometimes very indifferent; a nasal twang often pervading the pronunciation, and saluting the ears of the hearers from the bar, the pulpit, and the professor's chair. At the same time, less diversity of dialect and greater uniformity of pronunciation are observable in the United States than in the different counties of England. Yet, though the Americans speak English all over the Union, Greek and Latin are in general read with the Scotish pronunciation; owing, doubtless, to these languages having been hitherto taught by schoolmasters from Scotland; a practice not likely to be of long continuance, because the majority of teachers will, in future, be natives.

Literature. — The condition of society in America is unavoidably such as to prevent its members from possessing, as yet, an exalted literary character. Her population lives by trade; the recency of settlement has not allowed a sufficient accumulation of individual wealth to create an effectual demand for original works; the deficiency of libraries, public as well as private, renders any great attainments in literature exceedingly difficult; and the absence of all government-patronage leads men of talent to dedicate themselves to other pursuits. The progress of the Americans has been not in the elegant but in the useful arts; and their national character is modelled on that of the mercantile part of our countrymen, with less pretension to brilliant than to solid qualities. As to publications, the continual influx of books from England renders native writings, in a great measure, unnecessary: authorship is not a distinct profession; and the best scholars in America are lawyers, physicians, or clergymen, who, engaged in their respective professions, decline to come forwards as writers. Of the taste of the American public in books, a very good idea may be formed from inspecting the public libraries of New York, Philadelphia, and Boston; the three most enlightened cities of the Union. The novels, chiefly English, are in great request: next to them, plays and farces: history and moral essays are little read; and books on classics, philosophy, or political economy, generally lie undisturbed on the shelves.

'Add to this,' says Mr. Bristed, (p. 317.) 'the universal vice of the United States, a perpetual craving after novelty. The charge that Demosthenes brought against his countrymen, that they were continually running about, and asking, "Is there any

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thing new?" is equally applicable to the Americans. This eternal restlessness, and desire of change, pervade the whole structure of our society. The same man will start into life as a clergyman, then turn lawyer, next convert himself into a farmer and land-jobber, and, taking a seat in Congress or some state-legislature by the way, end his days as a merchant and money-broker. The people are incessantly shifting their habitations, employments, views, and schemes; the residence of a servant does not average two months in each place; and the abode of a whole household is generally changed once a year, and sometimes oftener.'

Applying these remarks to literary publications, the natural consequence is a short-lived and capricious encouragement of periodical works; after which they expire, and leave the same sickly course to be run by their successors. Such was the fate of the "American Review and Magazine," published at New York; and such also was that of the "American Review," edited by Mr. Walsh, whose capacity for this sort of task may be inferred from our report of his book on France in our Number for March, 1810, and of whose recent publication, called "An Appeal from the Judgments of Great Britain respecting the United States," we intend shortly to give an account.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. V. *The River Duddon*, a Series of Sonnets: Vaudracour and Julia: and other Poems. To which is annexed, a Topographical Description of the Country of the Lakes, in the North of England. By William Wordsworth. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

IT would indeed be a satisfaction to the professional critic, and a reward for his long labours, if he could entertain the remotest idea of any *direct* effect being produced by them, on the extravagant mistakes of genius, and on the corruptions of cotemporary taste. It might be Utopian to form an expectation of this nature: but it perhaps may not be wholly chimerical to entertain the pleasing hope that an *indirect* effect is, in some distinguished cases, so produced; and that the re-action of literary opinion produces an amendment in style which no individual censor, or body of censors, can accomplish. In this comparatively slow result of criticism, in this good produced by the circuitous diffusion of truth, the critic only shares the common lot of all who work for the improvement of their fellow-men. Especially may he console himself with the reflection, that his superiors in the great council of the nation, who *criticize* on so much ampler a scale, are forced, like

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like himself, to wait for this same *round-about* result of their patriotic orations; ministers being quite as incorrigible as authors by any *direct* appeal; and the well-informed of the community,—whose judgment needs only to be awakened and recalled to sound principles, whether of government or of literary composition, in order to demand and to secure the necessary changes in practice,—being at last the *rational reformers* by whom the prevailing evils are corrected. It certainly gives us sincere satisfaction to observe an improvement in Mr. Wordsworth, from whatever cause it arises. He has been *put on his mettle*, and starts for the present prize with a spirit and a beauty that have rarely characterized him in any passages of his long poetical course. We meet with poems in this volume which, in our judgment, would reflect honour on any of Mr. W.'s cotemporaries, and (which we consider as much higher praise) would stand a comparison with their neighbours if inserted among the minor efforts of the muse of old. The happiest of these productions, we think, are to be found among the miscellanies here printed; and not in the Sonnets on the river Duddon, although several of these are *very* happy; nor in 'Vaudracour and Julia,' which we regard as but a moderate composition. It is impossible to restrain a passing smile at the *fineness* of this title of 'Vaudracour and Julia,' when contrasted with "Peter Bell," and "The Waggoner." Mr. W. is determined to shew that he is at least as various as the singer in Horace; and that, if he can sound "the very base string of humility," he can also strike the chords to the most "holiday and lady" measures of which the harp is capable.

In serious truth, we view the major portion of the present volume as a practical recantation, as a distinct palinodia, sung in his best style, of all Mr. Wordsworth's poetical theories, or rather heresies, concerning the identity of the language of prose and verse, &c. &c. He has here proved himself to be endowed with very considerable powers (which, indeed, we never doubted,) as a poet of the genuine classical stamp; and, condescending to return to the established models of taste, he has frequently written in a dignified, elegant, and pathetic manner. We shall enable our readers to partake in our own gratification, at witnessing the dawn of a purer and nobler exertion of intellect in a writer of acknowleged ability, and of great amiableness of disposition; as far, we mean, as that can be indicated by the tone of sentiment which pervades his works.

The first little poem which we shall quote has appeared in the news-papers, and may (for aught that we are here informed,

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formed, or remember at this moment,) have been published elsewhere before: but, attended as it now is by a selection of more adorned and laboured efforts than we usually witness in Mr. W., we consider it as here first introduced to the world in fitting company; and we hope we may add, as the harbinger of many similar strangers whom we are to know hereafter.

'*Composed at Cora Linn, in sight of Wallace's Tower.*

'"— How Wallace fought for Scotland, left the name
Of Wallace to be found, like a wild flower,
All over his dear country; left the deeds
Of Wallace, like a family of ghosts,
To people the steep rocks and river banks
Her natural sanctuaries, with a local soul
Of independence and stern liberty." *MS.*

'Lord of the vale! astounding flood!
The dullest leaf, in this thick wood,
Quakes — conscious of thy power;
The caves reply with hollow moan;
And vibrates, to its central stone,
Yon time-cemented tower!

'And yet how fair the rural scene!
For thou, O Clyde, hast ever been
Beneficent as strong;
Pleased in refreshing dews to steep
The little trembling flowers that peep
Thy shelving rocks among.

'Hence all who love their country, love
To look on thee — delight to rove
Where they thy voice can hear;
And, to the patriot-warrior's shade,
Lord of the vale! to heroes laid
In dust, that voice is dear!

'Along thy banks, at dead of night,
Sweeps visibly the Wallace wight;
Or stands, in warlike vest,
Aloft, beneath the moon's pale beam,
A champion worthy of the stream,
Yon grey tower's living crest!

'But clouds and envious darkness hide
A form not doubtfully descried: —
Their transient mission o'er,
O say to what blind regions flee
These shapes of awful phantasy?
To what untrodden shore?

'Less than divine command they spurn;
But this we from the mountains learn,

And

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And this the valleys show,
That never will they deign to hold
Communion where the heart is cold
To human weal and woe.

'The man of abject soul in vain
Shall walk the Marathonian Plain;
Or thrid the shadowy gloom,
That still invests the guardian Pass,
Where stood sublime Leonidas,
Devoted to the tomb.

'Nor deem that it can aught avail
For such to glide with oar or sail
Beneath the piny wood,
Where Tell once drew, by Uri's lake,
His vengeful shafts — prepared to slake
Their thirst in tyrants' blood!'

Is it possible to believe that the same pen which produced "Alice Fell" and "Peter Bell," and the whole family of *paupers* in condition and versification, should also have struck forth these noble lines; and that they should proceed from an author perverted enough to maintain such degrading dogmas of poetical belief, as those which characterize that celebrated specimen of absurdity, the "*lyrical*" preface of Mr. Wordsworth? We trust that we shall have no future occasion to address this distinguished heretic again, as we have done of yore;

"Oh! fling away the *worser* part of thee,
And live the purer with the nobler half."

Let us listen again:

(From *Dion*, a Poem.)

'Five thousand warriors — O the rapturous day!
Each crown'd with flowers, and arm'd with spear and shield,
Or rudér weapon which their course might yield,
To Syracuse advance in bright array.
Who leads them on? — The anxious people see
Long exil'd Dion marching at their head,
He also crown'd with flowers of Sicily,
And in a white, far-beaming, corslet clad!
Pure transport undisturbed by doubt or fear
The gazers feel; and, rushing to the plain,
Salute those strangers as a holy train
Or blest procession (to the immortals dear)
That brought their precious liberty again.
Lo! when the gates are enter'd, on each hand,
Down the long street, rich goblets fill'd with wine,
In seemly order stand,

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On tables set, as if for rites divine;—
And, wheresoe'er the great deliverer pass'd,
Fruits were strewn before his eye,
And flowers upon his person cast
In boundless prodigality;
Nor did the general voice abstain from prayer,
Invoking Dion's tutelary care,
As if a very deity he were!

'Mourn, hills and groves of Attica! and mourn
Illyssus, bending o'er thy classic urn!
Mourn, and lament for him whose spirit dreads
Your once-sweet memory, studious walks and shades!'
For him who to divinity aspir'd,
Not on the breath of popular applause,
But through dependance on the sacred laws
Framed in the schools where Wisdom dwelt retir'd,
Intent to trace the ideal path of right
(More fair than heaven's broad causeway pav'd with stars)
Which Dion learn'd to measure with delight;
But he hath overleap'd the eternal bars:
And, following guides whose craft holds no consent
With aught that breathes the ethereal element,
Hath stained the robes of civil power with blood,
Unjustly shed, though for the public good.
Whence doubts that came too late, and wishes vain,
Hollow excuses — and triumphant pain;
And oft his cogitations sink as low
As, through the abysses of a joyless heart,
The heaviest plummet of despair can go —
But whence that sudden check? — that fearful start!
He hears an uncouth sound —
Anon his lifted eyes
Saw at a long-drawn gallery's dusky bound,
A shape, of more than mortal size
And hideous aspect, stalking round and round!
A woman's garb the phantom wore,
And fiercely swept the marble floor, —
Like Auster whirling to and fro,
His force on Caspian foam to try;
Or Boreas when he scours the snow
That skins the plains of Thessaly,
Or when aloft on Mænalus he stops
His flight, mid eddying pine-tree tops!'

Our readers need hardly be reminded of the story in Plutarch.

In the same animated strain of feeling, and the same ornamented cast of expression, this altered and amended poet * sings on another occasion:

* If indeed Mr. W. be not here returning to his own early and most natural character, ere false theories corrupted his imagination,

'For

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'For deathless powers to verse belong,
And they like demi-gods are strong
On whom the Muses smile;
But some their function have disclaimed,
Best pleased with what is aptliest framed
To enervate and defile.

'Not such the initiatory strains
Committed to the silent plains
In Britain's earliest dawn;
Trembled the groves, the stars grew pale,
While all-too-daringly the veil
Of Nature was withdrawn!

'Nor, such the spirit-stirring note
When the live chords Alcæus smote,
Inflamed by sense of wrong;
Woe! woe to tyrants! from the lyre
Broke threateningly, in sparkles dire
Of fierce vindictive song.

'And not unhallow'd was the page
By winged Love inscrib'd, to assuage
The pangs of vain pursuit;
Love listening while the Lesbian maid
With Passion's finest finger swayed
Her own Æolian lute.'

We are not *quite* assured of the *hallow'd* nature of the Lesbian page; nor do we *entirely* approve the expression of 'Passion's *finest* finger;' which, of course, must be her *little* finger. This poem is dated September, 1819.

From the lines 'On the Pass of Kirkstone,' we select the ensuing *general* and glowing picture *:

'Ye plowshares sparkling on the slopes!
Ye snow-white lambs that trip
Imprison'd mid the formal props
Of restless ownership!
Ye trees that may to-morrow fall,
To feed the insatiate prodigal!
Lawns, houses, chattels, groves, and fields,
All that the fertile valley shields;
Wages of folly — baits of crime, —
Of life's uneasy game the stake, —
Playthings that keep the eyes awake
Of drowsy, dotard Time; —

* The epithet *general* will furnish the clue to much of our praise of Mr. W.'s present effusions, and to much of our censure on his past vagaries. He has usually forgotten the admirable advice to the poet in Rasselas.

O care!

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O care! O guilt!—O vales and plains,
Here, mid his own unvexed domains,
A genius dwells, that can subdue
At once all memory of you,—
Most potent when mists veil the sky,
Mists that distort and magnify;
While the course rushes, to the sweeping breeze,
Sigh forth their ancient melodies!

'List to those shriller notes!—*that* march
Perchance was on the blast,
When through this height's inverted arch
Rome's earliest legion passed!
—They saw, adventurously impell'd,
And older eyes than theirs beheld,
This block—and yon whose church-like frame
Gives to the savage Pass its name.
Aspiring road! that lov'st to hide
Thy daring in a vapoury bourn,
Not seldom may the hour return
When thou shalt be my guide;
And I (as often we find cause,
When life is at a weary pause,
And we have panted up the hill
Of duty with reluctant will)
Be thankful, even though tired and faint,
For the rich bounties of constraint;
When oft invigorating transports flow
That choice lacked courage to bestow!

'My soul was grateful for delight
That wore a threatening brow;
A veil is lifted—can she slight
The scene that opens now?
Though habitation none appear,
The greenness tells, man must be there:
The shelter—that the perspective
Is of the clime in which we live;
Where Toil pursues his daily round;
Where Pity sheds sweet tears, and Love,
In woodbine bower or birchen grove,
Inflicts its tender wound.
—Who comes not hither ne'er shall know
How beautiful the world below;
Nor can he guess how lightly leaps
The brook adown the rocky steeps.
Farewell thou desolate domain!
Hope, pointing to the cultur'd plain,
Carols like a shepherd boy;
And who is she?—can that be Joy?
Who, with a sun-beam for her guide,
Smoothly skims the meadows wide;

While

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While Faith, from yonder opening cloud,
To hill and vale proclaims aloud,
" Whate'er the weak may dread, the wicked dare,
Thy lot, O man, is good, thy portion fair!" '

With the sincere and benevolent piety of Mr. Wordsworth, it is impossible not to sympathize.

It becomes now our unwilling duty to point out some remaining *Wordsworthianisms* in this volume. The foregoing extracts betray some slighter indications of those quaintnesses, and pedantries, and " affectations," as our good old friend Sir Hugh Evans would have called them; — such, for example, as

' Imprison'd mid the formal props
Of *restless ownership!*':

but we shall leave the reader to discover and in due degree to condemn the rest, while we proceed to some more striking peculiarities of this description.

' Vaudracour and Julia' is an attempt, we presume, to record a love-story, in all the less impassioned part of it, so very soberly and so very prosaically, that the most fanciful reader shall not be able to imagine it to be in verse, except from the shape and appearance of the lines in the page. Certainly, if it be prose in these passages, it wastes a great deal of the margin by its mode of publication. Yet, in this said Vaudracour, &c. we sometimes are delighted by a most touching, beautiful, and natural bursting forth of poetry. These, however, are not the parts which constitute that kind of merit which we are now solicitous to honour in Mr. Wordsworth. It is not a feverish and occasional energy; it is rather his raised and improved style (whether he has really written many of these poems anew, or only collected some of his best and older compositions into one *gentlemanly* volume,) that pleases us throughout the work; — and, in furtherance of our *visionary* design of contributing to the establishment of his poetical repentance, we shall here request him to forgive our notice of those peculiarities, yet adhering to his muse, to which we alluded above.

' " You shall be baffled in your mad intent
If there be justice in the court of France,"
Muttered the father. — From this time the youth
Conceived a terror, — and, by night or day,
Stirred no where without arms. To their rural seat,
Meanwhile, his parents artfully withdrew
Upon some feigned occasion, and the son
Remained with one attendant. At midnight

When

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When to his chamber he retired, attempt
Was made to seize him, by three armed men
Acting, in furtherance of the father's will,
Under a private signet of the state.
One, did the youth's ungovernable hand
Assault and slay; — and to a second gave
A perilous wound, — he shuddered to behold
The breathless corse; then peacefully resigned
His person to the law, was lodged in prison,
And wore the fetters of a criminal.
' Have you beheld a tuft of winged seed
That, from the dandelion's naked stalk
Mounted aloft, is suffered not to use
Its natural gifts for purposes of rest,
Driven by the autumnal whirlwind to and fro
Through the wide element? or have you marked
The heavier substance of a leaf-clad bough,
Within the vortex of a foaming flood,
Tormented? by such aid you may conceive
The perturbation of each mind; — ah, no!
Desperate the maid, — the youth is stained with blood!
But as the troubled seed and tortured bough
Is man, subjected to despotic sway.'

To say nothing of the pervading *prosiness* of this extract, in one part of it we discover the true spirit of "Wordsworth's edition of *animated* nature." The secret is to confound the properties of *vegetable* and *animal* life; and, on many occasions, to ascribe to herbs, plants, and flowers, nay even to stocks and stones, the reasoning powers and passionate attributes of mankind. This is the whole receipt; and Mr. Wordsworth has no patent for it: since the poets of the antient world, and their successors, the classical moderns, have (although more sparingly and judiciously) used the same wand of transmutation, and metamorphosed the inhabitants of one region of nature into the likeness of very different classes in another. It certainly is competent, therefore, to any versifier to tread in the same tracks, and, if he chuses, to become as absurd by the extravagant abuse of this *old liberty*, and still more by pretending that it is a *new invention* of his own, as even the author of the "Lyrical Ballads" himself.

The 'seed of the dandelion,'

— 'suffered not to use
Its natural gifts for purposes of *rest*,'

and the

— 'leaf-clad bough,
Within the vortex of a foaming flood,
Tormented,'

have

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have several parallels in this volume: but, thanks to *common sense* and *common censure!*, they are not so eternally repeated as in the other works of Mr. Wordsworth.

We are by much too plain men to relish (or perhaps fully to comprehend) the poetical morality of the subjoined passage:

> 'So passed the time, till, whether through effect
> Of some unguarded moment that dissolved
> Virtuous restraint — ah, speak it, think it not!
> Deem rather that the fervent youth, who saw
> So many bars between his present state
> And the dear haven where he wished to be
> In honourable wedlock with his love,
> Was inwardly prepared to turn aside
> From law and custom, and entrust his cause
> To nature for a happy end of all;
> Deem that by such fond hope the youth was swayed,
> And bear with their transgression, when I add
> That Julia, wanting yet the name of wife,
> Carried about her for a secret grief
> The promise of a mother.'

To our old English understandings, it seems less heinous for the lovers to be overcome by an unguarded moment, than for either of them to be '*inwardly prepared* to turn aside from law and custom,' &c. We can fancy the indignant zeal of injured virtue, with which a poet, or perhaps a critic, of the *Lake school* (for such prodigies even as the last do actually exist!) would have censured the above sentiment in any of our classical effusions; in the Eloisa, for instance, where indeed it *is*, unfortunately, to be found. It is rare that we have to reprove Mr. Wordsworth for any such mistake as this.

Let us now attend to some of the Sonnets on the 'River Duddon.' They are in number thirty-three; and certainly, whatever variety they may display in their uniformity, that number is sufficient for *one* river. The chain of connection, indeed, with this stream is often rather undiscoverable, consisting solely in the name of 'Duddon;' in which, if there be nothing mystical, (and of this we cannot be certain in any poem by Mr. W.) if there really *is* no more than meets the ear, we own that we are not greatly struck with its poetical effect: but,

> —— "What's in a name?
> "*Duddon*" will stir a spirit as well as "*Tiber!*"*

Let us try, then.

* See the motto to "Peter Bell."

'*Sonnet*

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'*Sonnet* VII.

'"Change me, some god, into that breathing rose!"
The love-sick stripling fancifully sighs,
The envied flower beholding, as it lies
On Laura's breast, in exquisite repose;
Or he would pass into her bird, that throws
The darts of song from out its wiry cage;
Enraptured, — could he for himself engage
The thousandth part of what the nymph bestows,
And what the little careless innocent
Ungraciously receives. Too daring choice!
There are whose calmer mind it would content
To be an unculled flow'ret of the glen,
Fearless of plough and scythe; or darkling wren,
That tunes on Duddon's banks her slender voice.'

The 'unculled flow'ret of the glen,' and 'darkling wren,' and the persons who would *prefer* to be either of these to Laura's bird or nosegay, are truly Wordsworthian. The bird and nosegay themselves are in a *finer* manner: but really we descry some symptoms of *finery* in this volume (so surely do extremes meet!) in the author's own style. For example:

'Or survey the bright dominions
In the gorgeous colours drest,
Flung from off the *purple pinions*,
Evening spreads throughout the west.'

Do not our readers recollect a certain "Song by a Person of Quality?" Who would have expected to see Mr. Wordsworth justly incur a comparison with it?

In that peculiar *seeming-wise* manner which so many of our cotemporaries have attained, Mr. Wordsworth stands pre-eminent. So, in the following passage, where the birth of the Duddon is commemorated, what can be more solemn, mystical, and pregnant with *apparent* meaning than these lines?

'But *as* of all those tripping lambs not one
Outruns his fellows, *so* hath nature lent
To thy beginning nought that doth present
Peculiar grounds for hope to build upon.'

In the subjoined verses, we see a specimen of that extravagant taste which, not contented with so far *animalizing* a river as to make it *undaunted*, (an allowable and antient liberty,) must proceed to describe it as running a race with the traveller, and laughing at his inferiority in speed!

'Starts from a dizzy steep the undaunted rill
Rob'd instantly in garb of snow-white foam;

And

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And laughing dares the adventurer, who hath clomb
So high, a rival purpose to fulfil;
Else let the dastard backward wend, and roam,
Seeking less bold achievement, where he will!'

We could point out many instances of this school-boy fault; this early imitation of Ovid, in his worst propensity of extending a liberty into a licentious usage, and dwelling on his ideas till they are good for nothing: but the clue which we have afforded in the last passage will enable any attentive reader to discover the peculiar error of Mr. Wordsworth,—the love of chattering with, and listening to the gabble of, the inanimate things which he has endeavoured to animate.

It appears to us that the great difference between Mr. Wordsworth's *plain* and his *ornamented* manner is this: in the former, all is told as distinctly, and with as laboured a minuteness of explanation, as we should attempt in addressing a child on any subject that he could not otherwise understand; while, in the latter, the author, like all other poets, and with no originality but that of his thoughts, (the greatest and the best originality,) addresses the cultivated imagination, and endeavours to awaken appropriate feelings and fancies by figurative words, which really mean much "more than meets the ear."

We cannot afford room for additional extracts, and must therefore be contented with referring the reader to sonnets 5th, 8th, 10th *, and 11th, 17th, (perhaps) 20th, 26th, 29th, 31st, and 32d. The remainder are more or less marked and disfigured by decided *Wordsworthianisms*.

Of the miscellanies, we have yet to refer to those which occur at pages 87. and 92.; and we think very well of several passages in the others. We have also to mention a most interesting account of the Reverend Robert Walker, in the notes; and to say, in conclusion, that the Tour to the Lakes seems to us to be as topographically useful as it is *poetically picturesque*.

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* The conclusion of the 10th sonnet is a complete *return* into the regions of antiquity, from the borders of the lakes. Mr. W. is certainly *improving*.

'The frolic loves, who, from yon high rock, see
The struggle, clap their wings for victory.'

ART.

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ART. VI. *The Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce:* in Two Books: also the Judgment of Martin Bucer; Tetrachordon; and an Abridgement of Colasterion. By John Milton. With a Preface, referring to Events of deep and powerful Interest at the present Crisis; inscribed to the Earl of Liverpool. By a Civilian. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1820.

THE title-page indicates with sufficient clearness the temporary purpose of this republication: but the preface, which ought to attract our immediate interest, is below notice as to style, information, and talent. The writer, who calls himself a Civilian, assuming Milton's scheme of divorce to be consentaneous to Scripture and to reason, offers it as an efficacious remedy for those defects in our canon and civil codes, to which he attributes the calamitous controversy that at this moment agitates the empire to its centre, and is visibly loosening the main holds which have hitherto kept together the complex frame of our polity. In other words, he proposes, as an infallible cure for matrimonial discord and conjugal disagreement, the dissolution of the bond at the will of one of the contracting parties. The question is of such high and interesting import, beyond the public inquietudes of the day, that we must beg the indulgence of our readers while we declare our sentiments explicitly concerning it.

In the present state of the laws respecting marriage, the dissolution of the tie is rigidly confined to those causes which render the marriage unfruitful, or pollute it with a spurious offspring. The law has stood thus from a considerable period before the Reformation down to the present time: the opinions and feelings of mankind have grown up in conformity to it; and it has been respected not merely as an artificial rule of jurisprudence, but as the injunction of religion and the ordinance of God. Milton endeavoured to demonstrate, in these tracts, by arguments founded on the whole context of the Scriptures, (but with a latitude of interpretation that excites considerable distrust of his reasonings,) on the laws of the first Christian emperors, and on a projected statute of Edward VI., that the power of divorce ought not to be restricted to these causes; and, regarding mutual support as the chief end of the institution, he contended that by any thing which frustrated that end the contract was vitiated and morally dissolved. Though, however, he brought into the controversy the full vigour and freshness of his gigantic talents, he gained but few proselytes, and his doctrine provoked laughter rather than confutation. This effect was no doubt owing to the too obvious motive which influenced his opinion: for domestic dif-

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ferences with one of his wives seem to have impelled his understanding towards the conclusions which he adopted, and laboured to impress on others. She had been educated indulgently and liberally; and the transition to the spare diet and gloomy confinement of Milton's household rendered her new home so little attractive, that an occasional visit to her own family was prolonged into a separation of several months. When the poet summoned her to return, the mandate was evaded under various pretexts, and at length disobeyed. It was the ill-humour generated by this discord, that exhibited to the mind of Milton the absurdity of those restrictions which fettered the power of conjugal repudiation, and impressed him with the advantages and efficacy of that free and uncircumscribed scheme of divorce, which he expended so much sophistry and learning to inculcate. His doctrine, however, did not accord with the notions of the age; and the celebrated religious convocation then sitting publicly censured it, and recommended the Lords to prosecute its author. It does not exactly appear how he escaped: but he consoled himself for the unfavourable reception of his argument by two sonnets; which Johnson peremptorily pronounces to be bad, though the second is much more than redeemed from neglect by those immortal lines in which he lashed the political hypocrisy of the times:

> "Licence they mean, when they cry liberty;
> For who loves that must first be wise and good."

This circumstance first indisposed him to the Presbyterians, with whom he had on former occasions ardently concurred.

It is difficult to suppose that disquisitions so carefully elaborated, and adorned with so much rhetorical skill, should have been wholly ineffectual; and on an inconsiderable party, hardly aspiring to the dignity of a sect, Milton's pleading for divorce produced a considerable effect. They were in consequence called Miltonists: but the doctrine and the sect soon expired in the usual euthanasia of human absurdities, neglect, and oblivion. Not an effort has been since made to revive a tenet which wars with the peace and repose of private life, and tends directly to the subversion of the best interests of mankind, till the present 'Civilian' re-edited these tracts: unless, indeed, we except the strange and now half-forgotten work which bore the title of Thelypthora, and which, many years ago, we so successfully opposed.

This is, however, the doctrine of Milton; and all that appears under the shelter of such a name, and the sanction of such an authority, is privileged from contempt. As long as it

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it remains, perhaps, it will be the occasional resort of those small wits who are perpetually arising in every country to disturb the settled opinions and moral convictions of the world, as a convenient magazine of argument and illustration; which they would seek to little purpose in the stores of their own intellects, or the acquisitions of their own learning. It is, therefore, never unseasonable to repel and refute it; to shew the fortunate and providential accordance of general feeling and prevalent opinion with right reason and happiness; and to exorcise in those hallowed names a melancholy dogma, which, if once permitted to triumph over the established decencies and received usages of life, would render social existence itself precarious.

Milton complains that, "if any two be but once handed in the church and have tasted in some sort of the nuptial bed, let them find themselves never so mistaken in their dispositions through any error, concealment, or misadventure, that they neither can be to one another a remedy against loneliness, nor live in any union or contentment all their days; yet they shall, so they be but found suitably weaponed to the least possibility of sensual enjoyment, be made, spite of antipathy, to fadge together and combine as they may, to their unspeakable wearisomeness and despair of all social delight." He proceeds then, by an arbitrary assumption, to reason on the Mosaic law, which allowed divorce for other causes besides adultery, as unabrogated by the New Covenant; and, finding the Hebrew law permissive of divorce where the man has perceived "uncleanness" in his wife, he extends the meaning of the word into an unfitness of the mind as well as the body, and, by an ingenious but sophistical exposition of our Saviour's answer to the Pharisees, attempts to prove that the words in the New Testament are not repugnant either to the spirit or the letter of the Jewish ordinance. The latitude of his doctrine is disclosed in another passage, with still less reserve. Every marriage which turns out to be unfit and discordant is, according to Milton, unlawful from the beginning, and may be therefore lawfully divorced: "and those who have thoroughly discerned each other's dispositions, which oft-times cannot be till after matrimony, and shall then find a powerful reluctance and recoil of nature on either side, blasting all the content of their mutual society, are not lawfully married."

Such is a compendious statement of the argument by which Milton enforced his scheme of unrestricted divorce. The tracts are written in that peculiar style of composition which, from some singularity of theory or taste, he adopted for his prose: it is occasionally elevated, always figurative, and not unfre-

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unfrequently, as if touched with the "fire of the altar," breathes the sublimest inspirations of his genius: but it manifests such a neglect of rhythm and violation of those rules of cadence and proportion to which our modern ears have been accustomed, that we feel the harshness and ruggedness of his inversions, and the stiffness of his Latinized sentences, too frequently to be charmed or detained by his graces. In the polemical passages, he unchains all the fury of scorn, rebuke, and indignation. The weapons of literary warfare are always at his command; and he is confessedly at the head of that school, of which Salmasius in his own day, and Bentley and Warburton at a more modern period, were disciples and examples.

It is in these humiliating contests that the most awful lessons are given to us on the weakness of our common nature, and on the disgraceful passions which bring the highest minds to a level with the lowest: while mediocrity and dulness triumph in contemplating the pitiful gladiatorship of malice and revenge, to which the brightest genius may be impelled to stoop by wounded pride and mortified ambition. Controversial rancour, however, was the fault of the age rather than of the individual: disputation did not then deal in reciprocal courtesies; and men had not yet learned the art of proving each other to be blockheads with politeness. The temperament of Milton, indeed, was constitutionally ardent, and little fitted for calm discussion. "I could not," he says, "to my thinking, honour a good cause more from the heart than by defending it earnestly;" and, when one of his adversaries on the subject of divorce called on "all Christians to stone him as a miscreant whose impunity would be their crime," we cannot deny that there was some excuse for his retorting in language which seems to our ears to be the height of acrimony and virulence.

As for the doctrine of divorce, which the editor of the volume before us has chosen to apply to the portentous inquiry that now so nearly concerns the vital interests of the monarchy and the people, it is evident that Milton substituted the most arbitrary glosses for the plain language and intelligible injunctions of the scriptural texts, which opposed him. As a specimen of the sophistry by which these authorities are evaded, we present those of our readers, who may not be conversant with the prose-writings of this great author, with a passage from the Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce.

'Next Christ saith, "They must be one flesh;" which, when all conjecturing is done, will be found to import no more but to make legitimate and good the carnal act, which else might seem to have

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something of pollution in it; and infers thus much over, that the fit union of their souls be such as may even incorporate them to love and amity: but that can never be where no correspondence is of the mind; nay, instead of being one flesh, they will be rather two carcasses chained unnaturally together; or, as it may happen, a living soul bound to a dead corpse; a punishment too like that inflicted by the tyrant Mezentius, so little worthy to be received as that remedy of loneliness, which God meant us. Since we know it is not the joining of another body will remove loneliness, but the uniting of another compliable mind; and that it is no blessing but a torment, nay a base and brutish condition to be one flesh, unless where nature can in some measure fix a unity of disposition. The meaning therefore of these words, "For this cause shall a man leave his father and his mother, and shall cleave to his wife," was first to shew us the dear affection which naturally grows in every not unnatural marriage, even to the leaving of parents, or other familiarity whatsoever. Next, it justifies a man in so doing, that nothing is done undutifully to father or mother. But he that should be here sternly commanded to cleave to his error, a disposition which to his he finds will never cement, a quotidian of sorrow and discontent in his house; let us be excused to pause a little, and bethink us every way round ere we lay such a flat solecism upon the gracious, and certainly not inexorable, not ruthless and flinty ordinance of marriage. For if the meaning of these words must be thus blocked up within their own letters from all equity and fair deduction, they will serve then well indeed their turn, who affirm divorce to have been granted only for wives: when as we see no word of this text binds women, but men only, what it binds. No marvel then if Salomith (sister to Herod) sent a writ of ease to Costobarus her husband, which (as Josephus there attests) was lawful only to men. No marvel though Placidia, the sister of Honorius, threatened the like to earl Constantius for a trivial cause, as Photius relates from Olympiodorus. No marvel any thing, if letters must be turned into palisadoes, to stake out all requisite sense from entering to their due enlargement.

'Lastly, Christ himself tells who should not be put asunder, namely, those whom God hath joined. A plain solution of this great controversy, if men would but use their eyes; for when is it that God may be said to join? when the parties and their friends consent? No surely, for that may concur to lewdest ends. Or is it when church rites are finished? Neither; for the efficacy of those depends upon the pre-supposed fitness of either party. Perhaps after carnal knowledge? least of all; for that may join persons whom neither law nor nature dares join. It is left, that only then when the minds are fitly disposed and enabled to maintain a cheerful conversation, to the solace and love of each other, according as God intended and promised in the very first foundation of matrimony, "I will make him a help-meet for him;" for surely what God intended and promised, that only can be thought to be his joining, and not the contrary. So likewise the apostle witnesseth, 1 Cor. vii. 15., that in marriage "God hath called us to peace."

And

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And doubtless in what respect he hath called us to marriage, in that also he hath joined us. The rest, whom either disproportion or deadness of spirit, or something distasteful and averse in the immutable bent of nature renders conjugal, error may have joined, but God never joined against the meaning of his own ordinance. And if he joined them not, then is there no power above their own consent to hinder them from unjoining, when they cannot reap the soberest ends of being together in any tolerable sort. Neither can it be said properly that such twain were ever divorced, but only parted from each other, as two persons unconjunctive are unmarriable together. But if, whom God hath made a fit help, frowardness or private injuries hath made unfit, that being the secret of marriage, God can better judge than man, neither is man indeed fit or able to decide this matter: however it be, undoubtedly a peaceful divorce is a less evil, and less in scandal than hateful, hard-hearted, and destructive continuance of marriage in the judgment of Moses and of Christ, that justifies him in choosing the less evil; which if it were an honest and civil prudence in the law, what is there in the gospel forbidding such a kind of legal wisdom, though we should admit the common expositors?'

What injunctions can be more clear and imperative than those which Milton has thus endeavoured to refine; and what dexterity can evade their plain and obvious meaning, if they are tried by fair and upright rules of interpretation? It is on these passages, enforced, and reiterated, and explained, by the first fathers of the Christian church, that the whole frame of our canon and civil law respecting marriage is founded. Abstractedly, however, from any direct injunctions of such high authority, the extension of the power of divorce to those arbitrary causes which are comprized in the vague phrase and indefinite import of "mutual unfitness," and "want of mutual support," is an evil so mischievous in its natural and necessary tendencies, that we are moved almost by an instinctive impulse to "eschew" it. The marriage-connection would thus be converted into something as frail and uncertain as the most casual concubinage. What would be the tenure of an union which every breath of humour, caprice, petulance, or passion might dissolve? Let the proposition be disguised as it may, what is it but the substitution of a precarious intercourse, determinable at will, for the sacred obligations of a permanent contract? The doctrine of arbitrary divorce is beautifully refuted by Hume in his Essay on Polygamy and Divorce; and with that philosophical analysis of the opposite reasonings on which the different hypotheses are built, which no ethical or moral writer executed with more address. "First, What must become of the children upon the separation of the parents? Must they be committed to

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the care of a step-mother; and instead of the fond attention and concern of a parent, feel all the indifference and hatred of a stranger or enemy? These inconveniences are sufficiently felt where nature has made the divorce by the doom inevitable to all mortals. And shall we seek to multiply those inconveniences by multiplying divorces, and putting it into the power of parents to render their posterity miserable?"

We go still farther in our resistance to this perilous doctrine: for we do not pretend to the almost sceptical neutrality affected by the Scotish philosopher, on subjects of such infinite concern to the happiness of the world; and we have always considered it as dangerous to discuss the great rules of morality as if they were casuistic subtleties. They may be regarded as laws emanating from the will of God, because requisite for the well-being of man. Let us suppose, however, for the sake of argument, that Milton's scheme of divorce, so strongly recommended to Lord Liverpool by the Civilian, were to be established into a law: — an important question is to be first settled. By what rules of jurisprudence are those causes of divorce to be tried? Human judicatures can proceed only on a fixed and definite law, and it is the very essence of all laws that they should be known and invariable. *Misera est servitus, ubi jus vagum atque incognitum.* Law is also a rule of action clear in its injunctions, and intelligible in its prohibitions. Who shall attempt to reduce within any precise category the several shades, and degrees, and kinds of inquietudes, dislikes, bickerings, petulancies, heart-burnings, and chidings, that render conjugal life unsweet; and determine the precise amount of mutual uneasiness which will justify the entire loathing and aversion that is to dissolve the marriage? These are clouds that perpetually darken the sun-shine of matrimonial peace, and will continue to do so while our nature is infirm and our passions are strong: but those clouds may pass away; and forbearance and affection may by degrees overpower the habitudes of temper, which render us fretful and unquiet. Above all, by what medium of proof are these matters to be established? The husband, who alleges, must himself prove the fact against the wife, and *vice versâ;* for of what other testimony is the case susceptible? Adultery is a fact which must rest on extrinsic evidence; and the husband, even were he permitted by the rules of civil evidence to attest it, is the last person who is likely to be cognisant of it:

"*Dedecus ille domus sciet ultimus:*"

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but of conjugal uneasiness, of the inability of his spouse to be "a help-meet, a remedy for loneliness," (to use the words of Milton,) in the majority of instances he must be the only person competent to speak. The question, therefore, will be adjudicated on the testimony not only of interested parties, whose prejudices and hopes are embarked in the issue which is to be decided, but of persons whose feelings, passions, and resentments ought to disqualify them from giving any testimony whatever. Nay, more: — it is scarcely possible that there can be any extrinsic evidence of that unfitness, which is urged by Milton and his editor as a ground of divorce. Specific facts, therefore, which are the subject-matter of judicial evidence in general, will in these cases avail but little. Internal repugnance, and secret antipathies, manifesting themselves by no outward act but in a cold sullen aversion, constitute the whole of the plea. Prove the dislike, and the cause is at an end: — the marriage is dissolved. The result will be that the judge must determine on this partial and exclusive testimony; and that testimony influenced, if not dictated, by the private interest of one of the parties in the quarrel, and in the first instance generated by that distempered state of mind which renders every impression erroneous.

We are reminded by this anonymous editor of the inconveniences of an indissoluble yoke. Is any human condition exempted from incommodities and vexations? When this sacred union was ordained for the conservation of the species, and the solace and recreation of man, it was not excepted from the universal lot of humanity; and care, and strife, and disquietude were permitted to grow up even in that paradise of the affections. Still they are not incurable evils; and what can tend more immediately to extinguish and repress them, than the mutual conviction that they must be borne if all escape from them is impracticable? Our minds are so framed that they become pliant to necessity. When the parties are convinced that mutual release is out of the question, an artificial courtesy, a reciprocal forbearance, will be superinduced over their peevish and fretful humours. *Abeunt studia in mores.* We soon become in reality that which we studiously affect. Thus, by means of a compulsory adjustment of mutual tempers and feelings, a real concord will be gradually produced; and that steady friendship may be excited which glows with a mild and tempered warmth, and is well exchanged for the more glaring and tempestuous heat of the passions. That alternate postponement of each other, — *invicem se anteponendo*, as it is exquisitely described by Tacitus, — that pious artifice of a reciprocal dissembling of griefs and a

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reciprocal suppression of complaints, — will destroy those inequalities of feeling and of humour, which, when they are suffered to grow, are the early buddings of hate, but which a moment's restraint may extinguish for ever. On the other hand, a little observation must have convinced us that every domestic strife would be quickened into inextinguishable loathing, if the dissolution of the tie were to depend on those arbitrary and indefinite causes.

Facility of divorce has never existed without being followed by a frightful dissolution of morals; and, therefore, though permitted in some countries, it has been discouraged in all. Even in the East, polygamy and divorce are discredited; the law permits them, but manners correct the law. In Rome, during the virtuous ages of her commonwealth, the few causes (they were only three) for which divorces could be obtained had the effect of a prohibition: but the restriction became gradually relaxed, and divorces were so frequent in the early period of the imperial government, that Augustus was obliged to pass a law compelling persons to marry. — Dionysius of Halicarnassus, who lived in that profligate æra, bursts out into a warm commendation of the antient law respecting divorces; which, by rendering marriage indissoluble, rendered conjugal life harmonious and delightful. All enlightened legislators, therefore, perceiving that marriage is the element of our social duties, have endeavoured to make it sacred.

The melancholy results, also, of divesting the obligation of its sanctity are within the scope of our own experience. The revolutionary legislators of France pronounced that marriage was no more than a common civil contract; and, proceeding in this spirit, they afterward went the full length of the principle, giving a licence to divorce at the mere pleasure of either party, and at a month's notice. The matrimonial connection was thus reduced to so degraded a state of concubinage, that, in the first three months of the year 1793, the number of divorces at Paris amounted to 562, and the marriages were 1785; so that the proportion of divorces to marriages was nearly as one to three. Had Milton fallen on those times, he would have leaped back with affright from his own doctrine; appalled by the mournful illustration of it in the torrent of vice and misery which overwhelmed for a while that unhappy country.

By what process of thinking the present editor of Milton's tracts concerning divorce could have been induced to recommend it for legislative adoption, as a remedy for future royal disunions similar to that which has given birth to the strange

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and anomalous procedure of the present day; or, estimating its evil, as he pretends to do, by the danger with which these examples threaten the public morals of the country, how he could have gravely proffered to the statesman whose name stands in the front of his book, a scheme which, if it could be established, would destroy every moral and social relation, and spread disconnection and disorder throughout the whole community; — these are problems to the solution of which we profess our incompetence. We can only solve the difficulty by a conjecture forced on our minds by the style and spirit of his reasoning; viz. that, like Milton, he begins to be weary of his wife. What but personal experience could have prompted the following paragraph? 'Alas, how many thousands as well as their Majesties are the victims of a barbarism as foreign from the spirit and improvement of the age, as it is repugnant to the mild and equitable requirements of the Christian law-giver! In how many miserable families are the greatest and best ends of marriage altogether frustrated! Yet can the injured obtain no redress; and their wretchedness is aggravated by the bitter reflection that it can terminate only with life.' (Preface, p. 9.) The best admonition, which our sympathy and compassion can suggest, is this; let him submit to his lot with as good a grace as he can command: for curtain-lectures and tea-table quarrels are not likely for some time to become legal causes of divorce; and, in the mean while, these, as well as other ills, will grow light and insignificant if they are borne with patience.

—— "*nec rara videmus*
Quæ pateris. Casus multis hic cognitus, ac jam
Tritus, et e medio fortunæ ductus acervo." JUV.

With regard to their Majesties, for whose conjugal discord the editor proposes the remedy, one of the parties has already had the full benefit of it; for, though no formal dissolution of the contract has taken place, it has been virtually dissolved by an actual repudiation: some or all of Milton's causes, some real or imaginary "unfitness," having induced the husband, very soon after his marriage, to "part bed and board" with his wife. If it be urged in reply that the relief has been imperfect, because a new marriage has been impracticable, the answer is that, if, according to the theory of Milton, mutual solace and peace be the prime end of matrimony, it is not very apparent that a second, a third, or even a fourth marriage would have yielded the requisite allowance of solace and peace to render it durable. What security would the public have had that the new marriage would be more auspicious than the old; or what

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what security would the second wife have that her tenure in her husband's affections would be of longer duration than that of the first? The same questions might be put through a long series of royal marriages, which might follow each in rapid alternation if these vague and indefinite causes of divorce were to be made the law of the land. Happily, however, they are *not* the law of the land, and are never likely to become so; for they are equally disowned by religion, conscience, right reason, and every authority to which human beings are bound to defer.

A divorce, however, is now or has lately been the subject of legislative deliberation. Reluctant as we are to give our opinions on such a matter, still, when great principles of constitution and law are in jeopardy, and the sanctions of social life are put to hazard, it is neither our duty nor our inclination to suppress them. We forbear, indeed, to pronounce on the evidence which has been adduced, because it is at present partial and imperfect *: but on the procedure itself we will not affect to be silent: for it appears to us to be an anomalous mixture of judicature and legislation, which, if supported by any precedents, can be rested only on the precedents of bad times, and such as, in our apprehension, are at variance with the true spirit and genuine doctrines of British law and British legislation. We believe, however, that, though Bills of Pains and Penalties are in one sense of the word supported by precedent, this is true only of those public and political offences respecting which the crown has not been private and personal suitor. How is it possible to alter or disguise this important fact? It is of a personal injury that complaint is made; and, though it is a personal injury which may be followed by political consequences, how is it possible not to feel that its private quality is predominant? Who, then, is it that seeks relief? An efficient part of that legislature which is now judicially investigating the complaint.—The anomaly is this. The injured, or at all events the irritated party, becomes by this process the judge in his own cause. Torture the proposition as we will, and disguise it in every way that sophistry or fancy can invent, "to this *conclusion* we must come at last." It requires, then, but few words to shew the inequality and injustice of a tribunal thus constituted. We do not dilate on the sympathies existing between the crown and the aristocracy; nor on the imperceptible though operative influence on the minds of the

* This article was sent to the printer at an early period in the month of October.

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greater portion of the tribunal arising from these sympathies. The vital objection to a judicature so composed is the identity of the party who seeks relief and redress from the enactment, and of the legislature by whom that enactment is to be passed.

Who will say that a measure proposing a divorce is not in its character a private measure? It is, therefore, as far as one of its clauses is concerned, a suit for a divorce; and, if determined at all, it must be determined in strict conformity to those rules of Scripture and of reason which pervade that part of our civil and ecclesiastical jurisprudence. Of these rules, none is more imperative in its obligation, or more sacred in its authority, than that which imposes certain conditions on him who sues for and is to be relieved by the divorce. What are these conditions? He is required to shew that his own misconduct has had no share in the injury of which he complains; that he has not ministered to his own wrong by cruelty to the person or infidelity to the bed of her from whom he seeks a separation; and that he has not himself exposed her to the temptations to which her frailty and her passions yielded. These conditions, from which no persons joined by the solemn rite of matrimony can plead an exemption, civilians and canonists are explicit in enumerating and defining. It was a doctrine that prevailed extensively, though not universally, that a divorce could not be lawful where the adultery was committed by a wife whom her husband had exposed to the snares of vice, by unjustly expelling her from his house; "*eam domo injuste expellendo eamve deserendo.*" There was another kind of unjust separation, however, which has been uniformly considered as an insuperable bar to a divorce; and Sanchez of Cordova, the most learned writer on this branch of jurisprudence, and (we believe) a writer of the highest authority, expressly classes that case among the impediments to a divorce for adultery. He says,* "*Nisi vir adulterii causam dederit, negando debitum conjugale;*" — and he quotes St. Chrysostom, (Homil. i. in Psalm.) "*Si tu abstines sine uxoris voluntate, tribuis ei fornicandi licentiam.*" In those instances, however, in which is shewn an actual or constructive knowlege of the adultery, and therefore an implied assent to it, the law peremptorily refuses the divorce: "*Quia injuria illata viro est causa et fundamentum divortii, quæ cessat ipso consentiente. Nam scienti et volenti non fit injuria.*"† This implied assent is a matter of inference from

* Sanchez Cordub. *de Matrim. Disput. de Divortio,* 10.

† Ibid.

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circumstances; and it would be a question for grave deliberation, whether the delay of all process for four or five years from the commencement of the alleged adultery, does not infer such a cognizance, or connivance, as amounts to that implied assent. Setting that question aside, however, if we suppose a negotiation to have been actually attempted, respecting a local residence, that negotiation having for its basis the abandonment of all proceeding, after a full knowlege of the supposed adulterous acts, and without including in its conditions the relinquishment of the criminal intercourse, — can any mind, though little accustomed to juridical or casuistic reasonings, hesitate to infer an assent to the adultery? — Another impediment, also, to divorce is interposed by reason and equity, of which no superiority of rank or station can justify the evasion. It is that which arises from the conduct of the person whom the divorce will relieve. His hands, in the strictest sense of the legal metaphor, must be clean: he must be himself free from the crime which he imputes; for "*Nihil iniquius quam fornicationis causâ dimittere uxorem, si et ipse convincitur fornicare.*" * The same civilian cites Saint Augustine, *de Serm. Domini in Monte*: — "*In quo alterum judicas te ipsum condemnas*; EADEM ENIM AGIS, QUÆ JUDICAS." The practice of the spiritual courts, in those cases in which a recriminatory defence is set up, proceeds on this principle: it is a right inherent in the party accused of adultery: it existed in the earliest days of Christianity, in the times of the Christian emperors; and it has been invariably recognized in every ecclesiastical court, from the Reformation to the present day.

Our objection, then, to the kind of procedure which has been instituted against her Majesty, stands on the solid foundation of religion, law, and reason. There is a moral competence beyond which even an act of legislation cannot extend; and the phrase which ascribes omnipotence to parliaments must be taken with this limitation. No doubt, the matrimonial tie may be dissolved by the legislature: but this cannot be done without exceeding that moral competence which at once limits and ratifies human legislation. It is evident that a legislative divorce in the present instance must break down the established principles of law; while it subverts those securities which the natural equity and enlightened conscience of mankind have invented for the equal dispensation of justice, and which have been confirmed by the ordinances of revealed religion, speaking the express will and injunctions of

* Sanchez Cordub. *De Matrim. Disput. de Divortio*, 10.

God.

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God. If, then, the Bill of Pains and Penalties be founded on precedent, we repeat, it is the precedent of wrong and injustice, the rude and mis-shapen progeny of bad times. "Let us not to our own destruction,"—said Lord Strafford *, in his memorable speech on the Bill of Attainder which shed his blood on the scaffold,—"let us not to our own destruction awake those sleeping lions by rattling up a company of old records, which have lain for so many ages by the wall, forgotten and neglected." A parliamentary judicature, moreover, under any circumstances, must be attended with obvious disadvantages. Other courts, at which a select number of judges preside, in the presence of a numerous bar, disciplined to the same learning, act under the restraint of that salutary responsibility which is the best guarantee for purity and rectitude of adjudication. It is true that the daily publication of their proceedings operates as an efficient check even on legislative tribunals; and that the press is a mighty agent, by means of which error and injustice are instantaneously summoned before the public mind of the country. Yet the responsibility, by such divisions and subdivisions becomes next to none: they are too many to feel the effect of public opinion:

"*Defendit numerus junctæque umbone phalanges.*"

In so numerous an assembly, a steady, uniform, and clear perception of the subject-matter of the procedure, of the evidence by which the issue is to be determined, and of the doctrines involved in both, cannot be expected to prevail. Hope in some; personal attachment in others; a natural leaning to the Crown in many; and in but *a few*, we hope, idleness, or pursuits and habits alien from all grave deliberation, and especially from all judicial precision of thinking; will inevitably have their share in the decision. In a tribunal like the present, partaking of the judicial and the legislative character, these inconveniences will be felt with ten-fold aggravation; and we must at the same time bear in mind the political as well as the personal connection subsisting between two at least of the branches of the legislature, whose concurrence is required to pass the bill into a law.

Such are our sentiments, unreservedly yet temperately stated, honestly and sincerely felt. Our respect for the Crown and the hereditary branch of the legislature is unfeigned, and we will lend no aid to those who seek to degrade them from their true and rightful place in the public estimation: but we ardently hope that, even now, it may not be too late to aban-

* Hume's Hist. vol. v.

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don a measure which has "frighted our isle from her propriety," and converted the cheerful and smiling loyalty of the kingdom into a general frown of sullenness and discontent; threatening to stifle every generous and faithful sentiment towards the throne itself, which can never have any real security but in the hearts and affections of the people.

ART. VII. *Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy*, Vol. XII. 4to. 13s. 6d. — Vol. XIII. Part I. 4to. 15s. Boards. Printed at Dublin.

WE do not receive the volumes of the Royal Irish Academy with regularity, and are consequently in arrear with our report of them. Two of their publications being now before us, however, we once more pay our respects to them, beginning with the portion of each that is devoted to Science.

MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY, &c.

An Explanation of the Method of Adjustment of the Back Horizon Glass of Hadley's Quadrant, by two near Objects; also a Description of a projected Addition to the Quadrant for reflecting that Adjustment, according to the Method of Mr. Blair. By the Rev. James Little. — It is difficult to give a very intelligible account of the contents of this memoir, as it refers throughout to a figure of the instrument on which it treats. We can only observe that considerable difficulty has always been found in adjusting the back-horizon-glass of Hadley's quadrant, though the importance of the adjustment renders it highly desirable that it should be effected with great accuracy; and, accordingly, different methods have been proposed, more or less practicable, by various authors. That which was recommended by Mr. Ludlam in his treatise on the quadrant, by means of two near objects, is generally considered as the best, and is most practised: but it consists merely of directions, without any demonstration of the truth of the principles on which it is founded. To supply this defect is the first object of the present memoir; and the latter part relates to a projected addition to the instrument, which, for the reason stated above, we cannot undertake to describe in this article. We may remark, however, that it consists of a second small index-mirror; requiring only one plane surface, fixed on the index at right angles to the great mirror; being totally free and detached from the index-mirror and capable of every adjustment for itself, without interfering with, or impeding, any motion requisite for that purpose for the index-glass, or altering its position.

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Two Proofs of the Binomial Theorem. By the Rev. Samuel Vince, A.M. F.R.S., &c. — The first of these demonstrations is so extremely concise, that we prefer to give it in the author's own words:

'When n is a whole positive number, it is proved by common algebra, that

$$(1+x)^n = 1+nx+n.\frac{n-1}{2}x^2+\&c.\ldots n.\frac{n-1}{2}\ldots\frac{n-r+1}{r}x^r+\&c.$$

Now if this be not true when n is a fraction, let the general co-efficient be $C+n.\frac{n-1}{2}\ldots\ldots\frac{n-r+1}{r}x^r$. Then the quantity C must vanish when $n=1, 2, \ldots\ldots\infty$. Now as C is expressed in terms of n and given co-efficients, it must always be of the same form whatever n is, and, as it must vanish when $n=1, 2, \ldots\ldots\infty$, it must be represented by $n\times\overline{n-1}\times\overline{n-2}\times\ldots\ldots\overline{n-\infty}=n\,(n^r-an^{r-1}+\&c.)$ where r is infinite; this therefore must be the value of C. But when n is a fraction, this value of C becomes infinite, which it cannot be, and as no other value of C can enter in addition, but this, the general value of the co-efficient of x^r can be no other than $\frac{n.n-1}{2}\ldots\frac{n-r+1}{r}$.

The second demonstration is also very short: but, as it refers for one part of the assumption to the author's treatise on Fluxions, it must be considered as so far imperfect, or incomplete. The Professor takes n and s to denote any indefinitely great numbers, so that $\frac{n}{s}$ may represent any fraction; then, assuming that

$$(1+x)^{ns}=1+nsx+ns.\frac{ns-1}{2}x^2+\&c.\ P_s$$

$$(1+x)^n=1+nx+n.\frac{n-1}{2}x^2+\&c.\ P.$$

and farther that

$$(1+x)^{\frac{n}{s}}\text{ is of the form }1+ax+bx^2+\&c\ P^{\frac{1}{s}}$$

it follows that, with respect to x, the form is the same in the three cases; and therefore it only remains to investigate the relation of the corresponding co-efficients.

'Now the series (P') and (P) are exactly of the *same* form in *every* respect, the factor ns in the former being represented by n in the latter. If therefore we perform the *same* operation on these two series, the results must have the *same* form, and what-

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whatever change may take place on ns in (P'), the same must take place on n in (P). If therefore we extract the s root of (P') and (P), the forms of the two series expressing the roots must be the same, and the roots be deduced by the same rule. Now the reduction of (P') to (P) is made by writing for the quantity ns in (P) that quantity divided by the root s to be extracted, or writing n for ns; the reduction is therefore made simply by the root s to be extracted, dividing ns by s, and writing the quotient for ns; hence we extract the s^{th} root of (P) by the same rule, that is, by writing for n in (P), n divided by s; hence

$$(1+x)^{\frac{n}{s}} = 1 + \frac{n}{s}x + \frac{n}{s}\cdot\frac{\frac{n}{s}-1}{2}x^2 + \&c.'$$

As our mathematical readers will now be able to appreciate the value of these two demonstrations, it is unnecessary for us to make any farther remarks on them.

On certain Properties of Numbers. By the Same. — Investigations relative to properties of numbers, if they cannot be placed among the most useful of analytical speculations, are at least intitled to rank among the most pleasing; and accordingly we find that they have generally, at one time or another, engaged the attention of our most celebrated analysts, from the age of Diophantus to the present day. Bachet was the first among the moderns who paid particular attention to this subject; and he was followed by Fermat, one of whose theorems still remains without demonstration, notwithstanding the various attempts that have been made to accomplish that object. Euler, Lagrange, Waring, Legendre, and Gauss, are also to be ranked among the promoters of this inquiry; and it would perhaps be difficult to find a series of authors whose names are more calculated to stamp a degree of importance on any subject which has been honoured by their united efforts.

The particular theorems proposed by Mr. Vince, in the present memoir, are, first, to prove that any number less than 2^{n+1} may be composed of some number of terms of the series 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, &c. 2^n; that is, (as it is commonly expressed,) with such a series of weights, any weight less than 2^{n+1} may be ascertained. — Secondly, that the same also may be effected by the series 1, 3, 9, 27, 81, &c.

These two curious numerical problems are investigated by Euler in his *Analysis Infinitorum*, and the truth of them rendered obvious: but still the investigation itself is left somewhat imperfect by that celebrated writer, in consequence of his not having shewn in what manner the selection is to be made in any case. It is this omission which Professor Vince undertakes

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takes to supply; apparently without being aware that it had been already done by Mr. Barlow, at p. 240. of his "Essay on the Theory of Numbers." Mr. Vince's rule, which is precisely the same in principle with that of Mr. B., is thus stated:

'Let A be any number, and 2^n the term next less than A. Take 2^r next less than $A-2^n$; 2^s next less than $A-2^n-2^r$; 2^t next less than $A-2^n-2^r-2^s$, and so on till there be no remainder; and then $2^n+2^r+2^s+2^t+$ &c. $=A$.

'In the *second* series, all the numbers in the general interval from $3^n-3^{n-1}-3^{n-2}-$ &c. ----- -1 to $3^n+3^{n-1}+3^{n-2}+$ &c. ----- $+1$, including those terms, may be made up by the following rule.

'After 3^n for the *first* term, put -3^{n-1} for 3^{n-1} times, then cyphers as often, and then $+3^{n-1}$ as often.

'For the *second* term, put -3^{n-2} for 3^{n-2} times, then cyphers as often, and then $+3^{n-3}$ as often; this to be continued *three* times.

'For the *third* term, put -3^{n-3} for 3^{n-3} times, then cyphers as often, and then $+3^{n-3}$ as often; this to be continued *nine* times.

'For the *fourth* term, put -3^{n-4} for 3^{n-4} times, then cyphers as often, and then $+3^{n-4}$ as often; this to be continued *twenty-seven* times.

'In general, for the r^{th} term, put -3^{n-r} for 3^{n-r} times, then cyphers as often, and then $+3^{n-r}$ as often; this to be continued 3^{r-1} times.

'Proceed thus through all the terms, and you will fill up all the numbers.'

Besides the above rule, Mr. Barlow gave a second, which possesses more practical facility.

An Account of a very remarkable Water-spout, which appeared at Ramsgate, July 16th, 1810, *a little before Three o'Clock in the Afternoon, just after a Thunder-storm.* By the Same. — The water-spout here described was very remarkable in this particular, that it consisted of two branches bent nearly, or perfectly, at right angles to each other; the horizontal branch which proceeded from the cloud being estimated by the author to have been about 400 yards in length, and the perpendicular part to measure about the same; the diameter was five or six feet. It was attended by a hissing noise, and continued for about five minutes, when it almost instantly disappeared; every part of it at the same time dissolving, as it were, into air; while the water of the sea, which had risen up to meet it, fell again to its first level.

On the cause and nature of this phænomenon, the author remarks:

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'The spout could not be water in its liquid state, for water in that state projected from the cloud must necessarily have descended in a curve; and further, had it been water in that state, when the supply from the cloud ceased, from the ceasing of the cause, it would have disappeared gradually from the cloud, shortening till it vanished at the sea; whereas it vanished altogether almost instantaneously. From all the circumstances attending the spout, it appears that it was nothing but part of the cloud drawn out in a very condensed state, for although the cloud was very black, the spout was much blacker, the part in the cloud appearing very distinctly in the cloud itself. On this supposition we may account for the sudden disappearance of the spout; since, by the operation of the electric power, the watery vapour might be resolved into its two constituent airs, and thus disappear almost in an instant. All water spouts, as they are produced by the same cause, we may conclude to be of the same nature, that is, a very condensed watery vapour. They have, perhaps, been considered as water, from the torrents of rain which frequently attend them, so as to render it difficult to distinguish that from the spout; and also from the rising up of the sea where they fall, the effect being such as might arise from the falling of such a body of water as the spout has been supposed to be.'

An Account of Observations made at the Observatory of Trinity College, Dublin; with an Astronomical Circle Eight Feet in Diameter, which appears to point out an annual Parallax in certain fixed Stars. Also a Catalogue of North Polar Distances of Forty-seven principal fixed Stars, from recent Observations, and a Comparison thereof with those of the same Stars, obtained by other Instruments, and by the same Instrument at a former Period. By John Brinkley, D.D. M.R.I.A. F.R.S. and Andrews' Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin. — We have given Dr. Brinkley's titles here at full length, in order to correct a little error committed by M. Delambre in this respect; who, in the "*Connoissance des Tems*," represents these observations as having been made jointly by M. Brinkley, D. D. &c., and M. Andrews, Professor of Mathematics, &c. M. Delambre evidently did not understand our conjunction of the two substantives, but perhaps would not be misled if we were to say Andrewsian Professor. — As we have already had occasion to make some reference to this memoir, in our account of certain recent communications of our astronomer-royal in the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, we shall be the more concise in our present notice. — One of the most important and weighty objections urged against the truth of the Copernican system, while it was still in its infancy, was that if, as asserted, the earth were at different times of the year in different points of its orbit, nearly 200,000,000 of miles distant from each other, some

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some change ought to be perceived in the apparent place of the fixed stars. The only answer that could be given to this objection was, that, great as this distance is, it is only as a point in comparison with the distance of the nearest of those bodies; a doctrine, it must be acknowleged, which in the then infant-state of astronomy must have appeared somewhat hypothetical.

The discoveries, however, in physical astronomy left the explanation no longer doubtful; and, if attempts have since been made to ascertain the parallax of the stars, the motive of the observers has not been to furnish a proof of the truth of the doctrine of Copernicus, but to determine whether any minute change in this respect takes place, which it is necessary to introduce as a correction of astronomical observation. The most accurate observers have hitherto answered this question in the negative: but, perhaps, in many cases, the instruments employed did not possess the requisite perfection to give a satisfactory solution to this curious astronomical inquiry.

Dr. Brinkley is in possession of an excellent eight feet astronomical circle, and is well known as a most skilful observer: his observations are very numerous; and the conclusion which he draws from them is that there are changes in the zenith distances of certain stars at different seasons of the year, which may be explained by supposing an annual parallax, and that, after long and anxious consideration, he is unable to attribute them to any other cause. We have stated, in our vols. lxxxiv. and lxxxv., that Mr. Pond has repeated many of Dr. Brinkley's observations, or at least has made his own observations on the same stars, and finds no such change of situation. The question, then, is still undecided; the instruments in these two instances are perhaps nearly equally perfect, and both observers are men of acknowleged talent: but the results are different. In one respect, we ought to remark, as Dr. Brinkley has done, that the mural circle of the Greenwich Observatory has some advantage over the Dublin instrument. With the former, no care is necessary but in making and reading off the observations; while in the latter the previous examination of the plumb-line is often a very tedious and sometimes unsatisfactory operation.

This candid acknowlegement of Dr. Brinkley should not, however, be considered as betraying any want of confidence in his deductions; for, whatever may be the difficulty in one case, compared with the other, if the results of the observations always indicate the same changes under the same circumstances, we may safely consider that they are correct, and

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that the difficulty of observation has been overcome by the diligence, accuracy, and perseverance of the observer.

Analytical Investigations respecting Astronomical Refractions, and the Application thereof to the Formation of convenient Tables; together with the Results of Observations of Circumpolar Stars, tending to illustrate the Theory of Refractions. By the Same.—The author introduces this memoir by a brief explication of the objects which he proposes to accomplish in it, and by tracing the history of what has been hitherto effected by preceding writers. Thomas Simpson first deduced the fluxional expression for refraction, 'by considering a particle of light as a body acted upon by a force tending to the centre of the earth.' He and others deduced the integral, or fluent, on the hypothesis that the density of the atmosphere decreased uniformly: but Bradley's form of the integral is the most simple.

'Laplace uses the same method of obtaining the fluxional equation as Simpson had done, and then proceeds to investigate the laws of reflection and refraction. He derives by an analytical process the conclusions which Newton had deduced in the 14th section of the first book of the Principia. Laplace next derives his fundamental fluxional expression for refraction which he shews may be integrated as far as 74° from the zenith, without a knowledge of the variation of density in the atmosphere.

'In this paper the same fluxional expression, that Laplace obtained, is deduced by a very short method, and by using the common principle of the given ratio of the sines of incidence and refraction. Besides the simplicity of the investigation, it has the advantage of avoiding hypothetic principles respecting the rays of light.'

We cannot, of course, follow Dr. Brinkley in his investigation, which occupies several quarto pages: but his result is so concise and simple, that, although it does not very well agree in form with what is commonly given in the pages of a review, we propose to copy it, as the best means of making it generally known. On a former occasion, we made a similar extract from this author, and strongly recommended its publication in the Nautical Almanack; a hint which has since been adopted.* The following, we conceive, is equally intitled to a place in that depository of astronomical science. It is at least deserving of a more extended circulation than it can attain while confined to the pages of the Royal Irish Transactions.

* See Monthly Review, vol. lxxxiii. p. 414., and Nautical Almanack for 1820.

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'Tables

'TABLES FOR REFRACTION.

Table I.

Far. Therm. °	Logarithms.	Far. Therm. °	Logarithms.	Far. Therm. °	Logarithms.
10	0.3285	34	0.3048	58	0.2827
11	0.3273	35	0.3039	59	0.2818
12	0.3263	36	0.3030	60	0.2809
13	0.3253	37	0.3020	61	0.2800
14	0.3243	38	0.3011	62	0.2791
15	0.3233	39	0.3001	63	0.2782
16	0.3223	40	0.2992	64	0.2773
17	0.3213	41	0.2983	65	0.2764
18	0.3203	42	0.2974	66	0.2755
19	0.3193	43	0.2965	67	0.2746
20	0.3183	44	0.2956	68	0.2737
21	0.3173	45	0.2946	69	0.2728
22	0.3163	46	0.2937	70	0.2720
23	0.3154	47	0.2928	71	0.2711
24	0.3144	48	0.2919	72	0.2703
25	0.3134	49	0.2910	73	0.2694
26	0.3124	50	0.2900	74	0.2685
27	0.3114	51	0.2891	75	0.2677
28	0.3105	52	0.2881	76	0.2668
29	0.3095	53	0.2872	77	0.2660
30	0.3086	54	0.2863	78	0.2652
31	0.3076	55	0.2854	79	0.2644
32	0.3067	56	0.2845	80	0.2636
33	0.3058	57	0.2836	81	0.2627

Table II. Barometer.

Z.D. °	28,50 ″	29,00 ″	29,50 ″	30,00 ″	30,50 ″
80	10,5	10,7	10,9	11,1	11,4
79	8,1	8,3	8,5	8,7	8,9
78	6,3	6,4	6,6	6,7	6,9
77	5,1	5,2	5,3	5,4	5,6
76	4,1	4,2	4,3	4,4	4,5
75	3,4	3,4	3,5	3,6	3,7
74	3,0	3,0	3,1	3,1	3,2
73	2,5	2,5	2,6	2,6	2,6
72	2,1	2,1	2,2	2,2	2,2
71	1,8	1,8	1,9	1,9	1,9
70	1,5	1,5	1,5	1,6	1,6
69	1,3	1,3	1,3	1,4	1,4
68	1,2	1,2	1,2	1,2	1,2
67	1,0				1,0
66	0,9				0,9
65	0,8				0,8
64	0,7				0,7
63	0,6				0,6
62	0,6				0,6
61	0,5				0,5
60	0,5				0,5
58	0,4				0,4
56	0,3				0,3
54	0,3				0,3
52	0,2				0,2
50	0,2				0,2
45	0,2				0,2
40	0,1				0,1
30	0,0				0,0
0	0,0				0,0

'Logarithm in Tab. 1. + log. barom. + log. tan. zenith dist. = log. approximate refraction.

'Appr. ref. — Number Tab. 2. = refraction.

'*Example.* Zenith dist. 71° 26′, barom. 29,76 inches, and therm. 43°.

'Log. Tab. 1.	-	0.2965	Appr. ref. 175″,4
Log. barom.	-	1.4736	Tab. 2. 2, 0
Log. tan. 71° 26	-	0.4738	
			Ref. 173, 4 = 2′.53″,4.'
Log. approx. ref. 175″4		2.2439	

'The supplement to this memoir, relative to the north polar distances of certain stars, we must pass over with the mere notice of it contained in the title of this article; as we must also the author's subsequent paper, or appendix to his memoir on the annual parallax of certain fixed stars, &c. &c.

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(Vol. XIII. Part I.)

Investigations in Physical Astronomy, principally relative to the mean Motion of the Lunar Perigee. By the Same.—Dr. Brinkley introduces this memoir by stating some of the difficulties attending the computation of the mean motion of the lunar apsids; difficulties, he observes, which induced Newton himself to abandon the problem in the latter editions of his *Principia*. The solution was afterward attempted by Machin, Frisi, Walmsley, and others, but their success was not complete.

'Clairaut, in 1748, had the honour of giving the first exact solution according to the principles of the Newtonian Theory of Gravity, after he had, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, announced that the Newtonian law was inexact, inasmuch that the mean motion of the lunar apsids deduced from that law did not agree with observation.

'Clairaut's result was confirmed by Euler, D'Alembert, and Mayer, and subsequently by other mathematicians. Their researches, however, being directed more towards a general theory of the lunar motions, than towards the particular question of the mean motion of the apsids, are so complicated, that the exact thread of reasoning repecting this motion cannot without difficulty be traced. The integration of the principal equation is usually commenced by supposing a formula which depends on the knowledge of that integration, or on the result of observations. Thus, in the Theory of the Moon by M. Laplace, he has, u being the reciprocal of the moon's distance from the earth,

$$u = \frac{1}{h^2 (1 + \gamma^2)} \left\{ 1 + \tfrac{1}{2}\gamma^2 + e \cos (v - \pi) \text{ &c.} \right\}$$

and remarks

'"Cette valeur de u suppose l'ellipse lunaire immobile; mais on verra bientot qu'en vertu de l'action du soleil, les nœuds et le perigee de cette ellipse sont en mouvement. Alors, en designant par $(1-c)\,v$ le mouvement direct du perigee, &c.

$$u = \frac{1}{h^2 (1 + \gamma^2)} \left\{ 1 + \tfrac{1}{2}\gamma^2 + e \cos (cv - \pi) \text{ &c.} \right\}$$

'This is his first approximation, but certainly the first approximation should be the former, and the second should be deduced therefrom by a regular process. The result undoubtedly confirms this hypothesis, but it seems more consonant to the usual steps of mathematical reasoning to deduce one from the other: this is an object in the following investigation, in which also the mean motion of the perigee is computed by confining the process principally to this point, and therefore will be easily intelligible to those who may be unwilling to encounter the formidable calculations necessary for the complete lunar theory.'

After

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After a few other remarks, the author enters on his investigation of the differential equations of the orbit described by a body moving in a fixed plane about a fixed centre, when two forces are acting on it, one directed to that centre, and the other in a situation perpendicular to the radius vector. In order to simplify the computations, Dr. Brinkley supposes that the lunar orbit is coincident with the plane of the ecliptic; that the orbit of the earth is without excentricity; and that the approximation is carried only to the first power of the excentricity of the lunar orbit: circumstances, he observes, which will have but little effect on the quantity of the mean motion of the lunar perigee.

'The quantity of the motion found is expressed in terms of the quotient of the periodic time of the moon by the periodic time of the earth, and thereby are satisfactorily shewn the erroneous conclusions of Machin, Walmsley, Frisi, and Matthew Stewart, who imagined that the mean motion of the apsids could be investigated by considering the moon acted on only by a centripetal force, the mean tangential force being $= o$. This is of some importance, as authors have recently referred to these solutions as exact. Professor Playfair, indeed, in his outlines of Natural Philosophy, published in 1814, speaks (vol. ii. p. 261.) with some doubt on the subject. After giving Dr. Stewart's result, and referring to those of the others, he says, "The result of these investigations, therefore, agrees nearly with observation, but it cannot be denied that the principle on which they are founded is liable to some objections, so that if it were not for the information derived from the direct solution of the problem of the three bodies, it might still be doubted, whether the principle of gravity accounted exactly for the motion of the moon's apsids."

'It is entirely by accident that their results are exact in the case of the moon. Had the periodic time of the moon been different from what it is, observations would have pointed out the error of their conclusions.'

The necessity of diagrams, and the intricacy of the investigation, prevent us from giving more than the above general view of this learned and ingenious communication.

Observations relative to the Form of the Arbitrary constant Quantities that occur in the Integration of certain differential Equations; and also in the Integration of a certain Equation in finite Differences. By the Same. — The integral of a differential equation, of any order, will contain as many constant arbitrary quantities as the order contains units; and it is generally assumed that they are entirely arbitrary, with respect both to their form and their quantity. The purpose of this memoir, however, is to shew that, by making them arbitrary as to form, they are frequently rendered less comprehensive than

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they would otherwise be. We can only allow ourselves to give the author's first example, and we do not perceive that we can state it more concisely than he has done.

'Let us take the equation

$$d^n z + A d^{n-1} z dx + B d^{n-2} z dx^2 + \text{- - - -} P z dx^n = o \qquad (1)$$

where A, B, C, &c. are constant quantities.

'Euler first gave the integral of this equation, and has since been followed by many other authors.

'$1 + Ax + Bx^2 +$ &c. - - - - $+ Px^n$ is always resolvable, as is well known, into simple or quadratic factors.

'The quadratic factors not resolvable into simple factors are, as is also well known, of the form

$$(1 - \alpha x)^2 + \beta^2 x^2 \qquad (2)$$

when $\beta = o$, there are two equal simple divisors $(1 - \alpha x)$.

'Now, according to Euler, and I believe all authors who have since written on the subject, (to the last of whom, Lacroix, I may particularly refer,) the part of the integral corresponding to the quadratic factor (2) is

$$c_1 e^{\alpha x} \cos \beta x + c_2 e^{\alpha x} \sin \beta x \qquad (3)$$

where c_1 and c_2 are constant arbitrary quantities, and the part of the integral corresponding to the two equal roots is

$$c_1 e^{\alpha x} + c_2 e^{\alpha x} x \qquad (4)$$

'Now it would, at first view, naturally be expected that the expression (4) would be deduced from the expression (3) by taking the limits when $\beta = o$.

'But in this case we obtain only $c_1 e^{\alpha}$ instead of $e^{\alpha x}(c_1 + c_2 x)$. Here the application of limits seems to fail entirely.

'The expression (3) is true *whatever definite* value we assign to β, and yet is not true of the limit to which this quantity approaches, when β is indefinitely diminished and becomes evanescent.

'This, which certainly appears a sort of paradox, may be thus explained:

'The expression (3) cannot be considered as including the case of the limit, for the general expression is

$$c_1 e^{\alpha x} \cos \beta x + c_2 \left(\frac{e^{\alpha x} \sin \beta x}{\beta} \right) \qquad (5)$$

'Now whatever value we assign to β excepting $\beta = o$, as c_2 is arbitrary, $\frac{c_2}{\beta}$ is arbitrary, and therefore may be expressed by c_2. But in order that the expression may be general, it must be retained of the form (5). Then if we make $\beta = o$ it becomes

$e^{\alpha x} \left[c_1 + c_2 \frac{\sin \beta x}{\beta} \right]$ or $c_1 e^{\alpha x} + c_2 e^{\alpha x} x$, because the limit of $\frac{\sin \beta x}{\beta} = x$.'

If

If we rightly understand Dr. Brinkley, he is about to publish a work on a particular method of integration, of which the above may be considered as a sort of specimen. We have no doubt that such a production, from such a quarter, will be highly acceptable to mathematicians.

On the Manner in which Algebraic Functions of the principal Variable are in certain Cases introduced into the Integrals of Linear differential Equations, that have constant Co-efficients. By the Rev. Edward Hincks, A. M., &c. — The object of the author is here to shew that, if $v=o$, v being a linear function of

$$\phi.x,\ \frac{d.\phi.x}{dx},\ \frac{d^2.\phi.x}{dx^2},\ \&c.\ -\ -\ -\ \frac{d^n.\phi.x}{dx^n}$$

and $\phi.x$ being an unknown function of x, this function is, in its nature, an exponential one; and the algebraical functions which occur in it, in certain cases, are only the remains of exponential functions, the other parts of which have disappeared in consequence of the evanescent factors by which they were multiplied. The investigation, however, is of a kind which we cannot undertake to illustrate in our pages.

The remaining papers must be the subject of a future article.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *A Letter to the Author of Waverley, Ivanhoe,* &c., on the Moral Tendency of those popular Works. 12mo. pp. 60. 2s. sewed. Hatchard. 1820.

THIS little publication, which bears the signature of *Timothy Touchstone*, deserves the praise of good intention, and is evidently the product of a mind tremblingly alive to the interests of religion and virtue: but we are by no means disposed to concur with the author in his reasonings on the religious or moral tendencies of the popular works mentioned in his title-page. We begin by conceding to him all that he has laboured to prove, of which the substance is nearly this; *that the writer of those celebrated fictions has not made the interests of religion and morality any part of his plan, in the numerous volumes which he has given to the world.* (P. 18.) This, after all, is merely a negative censure, and amounts to no positive crimination. It is true that an author who sends into the world fascinating works of imagination, which have a manifest tendency to corrupt the heart, to endanger the moral principle, or to shake the religious faith of his readers, incurs something beyond mere literary responsibility. He is amenable

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amenable at the tribunal of society, for actual mischief done or intended. No beauties of fancy, no charms of diction, no playfulness of wit, can absolve him, but aggravate his guilt, because they aggravate the evil. He is a more mischievous writer than if he were to promulgate an inverted decalogue, to teach vice by rule, or to inculcate wickedness by precept; for then the common judgments of mankind, and the ordinary feelings of their nature, would detect the fallacy of the argument, and reject the turpitude of the lesson. Romantic incidents, however artfully interwoven, and enchaining by spells of magic potency the affections and imagination of the reader, may dress up in such splendid and captivating attire the meanest and worst passions which belong to us, that with young and unconfirmed minds they may pass for the fairest and sublimest virtues. If the author of Waverley has done this, he has to answer for much culpability: but, if he has merely constructed ingenious and entertaining tales, and given them no marked tendency either of a moral or a religious kind, we do not see that he fairly comes within the scope of this author's animadversion, and for these reasons.

First, the writer of such a work does not undertake, and is not bound by contract, to do more than furnish the detail of a series of incidents, skilfully combined, and ingeniously developed, the reading of which shall fill up a vacant hour, which would be otherwise unemployed. Amusement is that which he proposes to administer; and, if he does amuse, he has fulfilled the strict letter of his agreement with the public. Religion has its professors, and morality its teachers; and there are times and seasons, in every well adjusted life, appropriately dedicated to the religious or moral discipline of the feelings and the understanding. The best regulated minds, and the most influenced by religious and moral considerations, may relax themselves in those sportive delineations of human nature and human occurrences, which have no distinct moral or religious tendency; and it must be so; for, if a sort of literary statute were enacted, one of the clauses of which compulsorily demanded a moral and religious tendency from the novelist, his occupation would be at an end. His prototypes are to be found only in the real world; in the ordinary scenes and daily intercourses of life; among mankind as they are, and always have been. Every aberration from these prototypes endangers his success; and if he paints imaginary beings with attributes that do not belong to them, or wanders from verisimilitude in order to point a moral or to inculcate a doctrine, his book will not be read, or will be speedily forgotten.

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gotten. Now, the world of reality is such a jumble of cross pursuits, such a mingled chaos of resolves and purposes, of schemes frustrated and designs thwarted by one set of accidents and consummated by another, that, although such circumstances constitute the fund from which he has to extract his humour, select his events, and derive his characters, it is obvious that many of these pass off without the elucidation of one religious or moral truth. If this be the case in the original, it must be the same in the copy. The every-day business of life, its perpetually recurring events, its changeful scenes, its strange and fantastic personages, are the elements of the modern novel; and it therefore is obvious that, without the most violent distortion of the original which he copies, it must frequently be wholly impossible for the author to make his persons, his events, and in short all the machinery of his tale, systematically conduce to a moral purpose, sufficiently marked and decided to ensure the approbation of the writer now before us. He must, consequently, be contented with an inferior end; taking care that his scenes do not conduce to one that is immoral.

In the second place, it is not quite so clear that a fiction, carried on in subservience to a moral or a religious end, would be sure of attaining it. If the proposition, which the work is intended to elucidate, happen to be disputable, it will remain unelucidated; if plain and self-evident, it would be rejected by the reader as an affront to his acquirements and his understanding. The best way, therefore, is to let every one who takes up the book extract from it his own moral. Human life is so constructed, that its ordinary occurrences not unfrequently impart the most momentous lessons. The inordinate indulgence of the passions, for instance, is illustrated by its consequences, — premature wretchedness, unavailing repentance, and the contempt and ill-will of society. Every novel must contain a portion of this species of instruction, because the materials of every novel are drawn from the world at large, and in the world these things are constantly occurring: but whether this be the primary purpose or the incidental effect of the fiction is of little consequence. The inconvenience of writing a fiction, however, in subservience to a primary purpose, is that it clogs and fetters the writer: whereas a story taken from human life, and faithfully delineating its various scenes, *e medio fortunæ ductus acervo*, must comprehend nearly all that makes the most useful impression in the actual world. Don Quixote and the Arabian Nights' Entertainments are works of fancy, but not composed in subordination to any fixed moral or religious purpose: but, as in

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in the endless round of human affairs, occurrences are for ever happening which imprint an useful memorial on the heart, so it is in the rapid evolutions of characters and events that successively start up in fictitious narrative. If our reasoning be correct, the author of Waverley was not bound by any real obligation to clip and cut his novels, in order to render them the vehicles of religious and moral instruction. He was only required, and required by the highest of all obligations, to abstain with the most sacred caution from every thing which rendered them irreligious and immoral.

We now come to a plain issue of fact. The author of the tract successively runs through the several Scotch novels to shew the inattention, which he charges on the writer, to the interests of religion and morals. *Waverley* is first called into court, but dismissed with a slight reprimand. It is somewhat extraordinary that he should have been arraigned; for the narrative is admitted to have been written 'with a steady purpose practically to illustrate that indolence and indecision of mind, though not in themselves vices, frequently prepare the way to exquisite misery.' (P. 19.) It betrays, however, we are told, a want of poetic justice; for Waverley, this indolent and indecisive character, receives the reward, and Fergus Mac Ivor, who exhibits the contrary virtue of bold daring and firm purpose, is brought to the scaffold. Now, it will not be contended that Waverley should have been brought to the scaffold for indolence and indecision of character; especially as he has been somewhat punished by the exquisite misery entailed on him by those defects of character;—and we never heard that bold daring and firmness of purpose were an available defence to save from the scaffold a person who was taken in actual rebellion.

Guy Mannering does not come off quite so well. Gentle reader, conjecture, if thou canst, the crime laid to his charge! An opportunity occurs 'of giving a most impressive MORAL to the sequel.' (P. 20.) The clergyman, who comes forwards to absolve Meg Merrilies, does not, it seems, do his duty: he exhorts her to repentance, it is true: but *he says only so much on the uncovenanted mercy of God, as may rather encourage a delusive confidence in imperfect repentance, than repress vice by shewing its dangerous consequences, and its certain and everlasting punishment.* Those of our readers, who recollect the death of Meg Merrilies, will be much at a loss to find any thing that fell from her in her dying moments, which indicated a confidence in imperfect repentance. On the contrary, we should have cited the passage as an awful instance of the despair of a dying sinner. "Meg, who

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who was in one of those dozing fits of stupefaction that precede the close of existence, suddenly started:—"Dinna ye hear?—dinna ye hear?—he's owned!—he's owned!—I lived but for this.—I am a sinfu' woman," &c. &c. (Guy Mannering, vol. iii. p. 308.)

The trial of *The Antiquary* turns on a short issue. 'In the exquisite scene of the funeral of the fisherman's son, where the pastor's office would naturally call him to administer consolation, *no one appears*, nor is it certain any one attended at all.' (P. 22.) Now, if this had been the case, we should not have been disposed to be very severe against the author, who introduces a funeral and omits to make the pastor a principal in the groupe: but what is the fact? *Tantamne rem tam negligenter?* Could Mr. Touchstone have forgotten that dreadful proser, the Rev. Mr. Blattergoul? "Mr. Blattergoul had no sooner entered the hut, and received the mute and melancholy salutations of the company, than he edged himself toward the unfortunate father, and seemed to endeavour to slide in a few words of condolence or consolation. But the old man was incapable of receiving either," &c. &c. * * * * "The minister next passed to the mother," &c. &c. * * * * "The tenor of what he said to the poor woman could only be judged by her answers, as half-stifled by sobs ill-repressed, and by the covering which she still kept over her countenance, she faintly answered at each pause in his speech, "Yes, Sir, yes!—Ye're very gude!—Ye're very gude!—Nae doubt, nae doubt!—It's our duty to submit!—But it," &c. &c. * * * * (The Antiquary, vol. iii. p. 40.) So much for the *accuracy* of this moral and religious alarmist, Mr. Timothy Touchstone.

Of a piece with these are the other accusations brought against the Scotish novelist. *Old Mortality* is arraigned because, in contrast to Balfour the puritan, who is a sample of the intemperance of Calvinistic zeal, no character is introduced to exemplify 'that *moderation* which is the essence of true piety; and the principal actors in each party are represented as equally cruel and relentless persecutors.' (P. 24.) In *Rob Roy*, the first duty, filial love and reverence, is considered as annihilated; and there is another grievous offence,—Rob Roy is not hanged! The *Heart of Mid-Lothian* receives a smart chastisement, because George Robertson also escapes the gallows. To this last romance, the letter-writer attributes a tendency highly immoral. Has he overlooked the awful and impressive lesson inculcated in the sufferings of Effie Deans, and the pure and inward satisfactions that glowed in the bosom of her sister Jenny?

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We intended to have gone on: but at every step Mr. Touchstone grows more testy and unreasonable. Nothing will please him. We have already said enough to shew on what slight premises he founds his animadversions: but we really believe him to be a good sort of man, though he has worked himself into a terrible religious and moral fright about nothing; and it is therefore with pleasure that we quote the concluding passage of his tract, which conveys a truth that cannot be too strongly impressed on all writers who administer to the public amusement:

'"Great parts are nature's gift:" but for the employment of them man must account to nature's great Author. And we have the highest and most indisputable authority for believing that HE who gives "will come to reckon with his servants." And if the unprofitable servant who *hid* his talent was condemned to darkness, weeping, and gnashing of teeth, what would have been his fate had he *perverted* it to the *injury* or *prejudice* of his fellows? In that tremendous day, which will call us all to the bar of eternal justice, he who misuses talent, equally with those who misuse wealth or power, will call in vain "on the mountains to fall on him, and the hills to cover him!" — But I have far exceeded the limits I at first proposed to myself, and must conclude by wishing you a long enjoyment of your inimitable talent, and the fame and wealth it is capable of bringing you; but permit me to caution you against trusting *too much* "to the good nature of your English reader for insuring the favourable reception" of any work in which RELIGION and MORALS are not respected.'

ART. IX. Dr. Macculloch's *Description of the Western Islands of Scotland.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 52.]

COLONSAY is nearly ten miles in length, and three in breadth where widest, being separated from Oransay by a narrow strait, which becomes dry at low water; and the physical structure of these islands is the same, the predominating rock being micaceous schist, with a smooth and glossy surface, but generally much contorted.

Lismore, which is entirely calcareous, has a verdant and fruitful soil, but is destitute of trees, and of picturesque beauty.

'If however it is deficient in this respect, it presents to the artist a station whence he may survey the almost unexampled magnificence of the bay of Oban, and the ranges of mountains which bound it on all sides. To the eastward, the summits of Cruachan and the hills of Appin, extend in a continued and intricate chain to

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to Ben Nevis, while the rugged and brown land of Morven constitutes the boundary to the north; the mountains of Mull retiring in distant perspective to the westward, succeeded by the high and bold mass of Scarba, and the fainter tints of the cones of Jura. Rocks and islands which cannot be counted, chequer the magnificent extent of sea included in this circle; which is enlivened by the perpetual appearance of ships entering the bay, or navigating the Linnhe Loch and the sound of Mull. The historical interest excited by the castles of Duart, Dunnolly, Dunstaffnage, and others which are visible from this station, complete a scene which has not a parallel in the whole range of this variegated and picturesque coast. Though the geologist will find little to reward him, in his particular pursuit, he will not regret a summer's day spent on the wild thyme and the grey rocks of Lismore *.'

This island is the seat of a Catholic College, which is chiefly supported by the produce of the lime-quarries. The calcareous strata that pervade the island correspond with those of Isla, and are subject to great irregularities in their bearings and inclinations; besides being often much contorted. In many places, they are interlaminated with clay-slate. The natural caverns are numerous, and usually contain large stalactitical concretions. The veins of calcareous spar, and even those of quartz, follow the contortions of the rock in which they lie, and thus add to the difficulty attending any satisfactory explanation of the contortion of strata.

' * At the western extremity of this island are some rocks separated at low water, where the cattle may be daily observed resorting; quitting the fertile pastures to feed on sea weed. It has erroneously been supposed that this practice, as well as the eating of fish, was the result of hunger. It appears, on the contrary, to be the effect of choice, in cattle as well as in sheep that have once found access to this diet. The accuracy with which they attend to the diurnal variations of the tide is very remarkable; calculating the times of the ebb with such nicety that they are seldom mistaken even when they have some miles to walk to the beach. In the same way they always secure their retreat from these chosen spots in such a manner as never to be surprised and drowned by the returning tide. With respect to fish, it is equally certain that they often prefer it to their best pastures. It is not less remarkable that the horses of Shetland eat fish from choice, and that the dogs brought up on these shores continue to prefer it to all other diet, even after a long absence. The feeding of cattle with fish is a practice well known in Canada, and it is recorded on the authority of Herodotus that the inhabitants of the lake Prasias fed their horses and cattle on fish. This fact offers to physiologists a singular example of the accommodating powers of the stomach of these animals, and of the convertibility of their natural instincts.'

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The *Craignish Isles*, which are wooded, and frequented by the thrush, are about twenty in number: but many of them are very small. Their composition is similar to that of Shuna, and also to that of St. Cormac, Gigha, and Cara; the leading rocks being various modifications of quartz, micaceous schist, and chlorite schist, which are severally discussed in the condensed view of this portion of the work.

The *Clyde Islands* include those which are embayed in the estuary of the river of that name, and which have other bonds of connection than mere geographical contiguity. *Arran* naturally takes the lead, and is described in these pages with a masterly pencil: but, as it has lately become in some measure an object of public notoriety, we may be excused if we decline to linger on its mountains or its shores. — Of the green colour of its streams, which cannot fail to have attracted the notice of its yearly visitors, Dr. M. finds a satisfactory explanation in the absence of peat earth, and other contaminating substances; and in the white rocky bottom on which they flow reflecting the natural colour of the water, the circumstance of its being fresh or salt producing no difference in this respect. The alluvial deposits, which occur in various parts of the island, are sometimes the result of the rolling of the existing streams, and sometimes may be more reasonably referred to the powerful and extensive but remote agency of diluvian waters.

It is well known that the granite exhibits very considerable varieties: but, though it often affects a prismatic texture, and occasionally has a tendency to exfoliate round a nucleus, it no where appears stratified. That of a coarse-grained texture occurs on the eastern, and that of a fine grain on the western side of the island. Veins of the same substance sometimes originate and terminate in the mass, and sometimes pass from it into the adjoining schist. These veins are of a fine-grained character; as are many distinct concretions which are imbedded in the ordinary kind.

The rock that succeeds next to the granite, in point of superposition, is the schist; which is either micaceous or argillaceous, although the series of each cannot be distinctly traced, owing to many accidental circumstances connected with the soil. It may, however, be generally stated that the argillaceous occupies the north-eastern, and the micaceous the south-western side of the mountains. The former is mostly characterized by an uncommon degree of hardness, and is often so blended with quartz as to have its appropriate characters nearly obliterated. In various portions of this series, chloritic, talcose, and micaceous schists are so irregularly blended

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blended that their boundaries defy recognition. It is moreover accompanied with coarse graywacké, which is occasionally next to the granite. A community of constitution and of geographical bearing among the schistose and sandstone strata of Arran and Bute, and of the main land of Scotland, sufficiently points to their identity; while the confusion of dip and direction in Arran is obviously attributable to the intrusion of the granitic masses.

In the tract which extends from Loch Ransa to Brodick, the secondary strata of the island appear disclosed in a very striking and interesting manner. They consist of red sandstone conglomerate, attaining to 800 or 1000 feet in thickness; and an enormous bed of white sand-stone, with alternations of similar rocks, of shales, lime-stones, marls, &c. beyond the powers of accurate computation. That they are of prior formation even to the granite seems not improbable, from various specious arguments which the Doctor has adduced: but the chronology of mineral formations is, at best, very dark and doubtful. The rocks superior to the sandstone series, and therefore presumed to be of more recent origin, are basalt, green-stone, syenite, clay-stone, compact felspar, and porphyry; which often graduate into one another, and are disposed with too much irregularity to be very easily or accurately examined. The porphyries are numerous and various; and both they and the pitch-stones, of which not fewer than twenty-six modifications are defined, occur in the form of veins. The author's account of the whole series may indeed, by some readers, be reckoned unnecessarily prolix: but let such persons remember that the appearances are much diversified, that they have given rise to differences of opinion, and that the correction of preceding mis-statements requires an ample and accurate exposition of particular facts. We have certainly no where else met with more distinct and satisfactory details relative to the frame-work of this interesting island, than are here very patiently unfolded; and which, in less judicious hands, might have been more extended without proving on that account more instructive.

Dr. M.'s list of independent minerals in Arran is neither very numerous nor very important. The smoke quartz crystals, found in cavities of the granite, have been long known; and some of them are applied to ornamental purposes. Epidote, augit, the sulphate of barytes, stilbite, mesotype, chalcedony, and prehnite, also occur, but rarely in fine or large specimens. The prehnite, however, suggests to the author the more considerable repositories of that substance on the banks of the Clyde, in the counties of Dumbarton and Renfrew; where the most interesting circumstance connected with its

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history is that it undergoes transitions into stilbite, analcyme, quartz, &c.

Passing over the small islands of *Lamlash*, *Pladda*, and *Sanda*, we arrive at *Bute*. Though of a much less imposing aspect than Arran, its more regular structure, and the connection which it exhibits between the geology of the latter and of the main land, render this island highly worthy of investigation; while (notwithstanding its humid and rainy atmosphere) the singular mildness of its climate, and the striking diversity of its scenery, recommend it as a residence during the summer-months to invalids, and those who sigh for the breezes and the retirement of the country. Its length is about eighteen miles, and its general breadth is four. Its northern portion consists of schistose rocks; its middle division, with a few slight exceptions, of sand-stone; and the southern district, denominated the *Garroch Head*, of trap. The schistose beds make part of that primordial tract which traverses Scotland from the hills of Angus to the Clyde, passing by Dunkeld, Crieff, Callendar, Loch Lomond, and Cowal, and is composed of alternations and intermixtures of micaceous, argillaceous, and chlorite slate; occasionally accompanied by graywacké. The red sand-stone and conglomerate beds, which appear to be subjacent to the trap, are not conformable in position with the schists; nor is their contact with the latter visible, owing to the state of the surface in the line of junction. They correspond to the lowest beds in Arran, and present the same indiscriminate and disorderly mixture of the finer varieties, and of conglomerates. In one spot, they involve fragments of an irregular bed of lime-stone. Another partial bed of the last-mentioned material, but of a coarser quality, lies above the sand-stone, apparently interposed between it and the trap. The overlying position of the latter is most obvious on the west side of the island: yet, as veins of the same material traverse the sand-stone in different places, Dr. M. intimates a suspicion that they may proceed from the mass, which may therefore be also found under the sand-stone. At the Garroch Head, the trap principally consists of a fine-grained green-stone, or of a substance intermediate between that and basalt. — Coal has been detected, and even worked in one or two very limited spots: but not under circumstances encouraging to the proprietor. — The ensuing account of a trap-vein, in the immediate neighbourhood of one of the abandoned workings, deserves to be extracted, on account of the singularity of the detail:

'The large vein, before mentioned as appearing to proceed from the mass of trap at Ascog, presents a singular and, at first sight,

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sight, a very deceptive appearance. It is laminar, or divided into layers parallel to its sides, and is at the same time vertical. At the inner edge, or west side, (its course being north,) it appears to contain fragments of lime-stone occupying one of the laminæ, accompanied by some larger parallel portions of the same substance. A close examination discovers the true nature of this appearance without diminishing its singularity. It is thus found that the outer laminæ, which appear, like the inner, to be parts of the vein, are not trap, but shale; and that the lime-stone fragments are contained in this substance, not in the trap. This shale is so fine and compact that it can scarcely be distinguished from a basalt; but pursuing it further outwards from that part of the rock, which, from its greater hardness and permanence, seems to appertain to the vein, it is found to be succeeded by a coarser shale alternating with sand-stone, still vertical or parallel to the real laminæ of the vein. These differ in no respect from the ordinary shale and sand-stone that form the shore; but which, every where else, are in their usual horizontal position. Not far off, the same shale, containing fragments of lime-stone, are found together with the simple shale and the sand-stone, in that which may be called their natural position, and in the same order which they occupy relatively on the edges of the vein; the first of these rocks being the lowermost. Unfortunately, the rolled stones which cover the beach to a great depth, prevent the possibility of tracing the connexion between these strata in their vertical and in their horizontal position. The sketch which accompanies this description is intended to represent the mode in which this appearance seems to have been produced; representing the actual state of the rocks and the proposed explanation. It is possible that there may be a fracture where I have only supposed a curvature; but it makes no material alteration in the views of this very interesting phenomenon. The calcareous breccia will appear, by this drawing, to be situated below the sand-stone, and can therefore rarely be seen in its natural position; becoming here visible only in consequence of its edge being thus turned upwards.

'Among the numerous instances of displacement produced by the passage of trap veins, no case exactly similar to this, or of so marked a character, has occurred in the innumerable examples of such veins that I have examined; although marks of a force acting upwards are not uncommon. The very partial and limited as well as decided marks of such violence here, render this case particularly striking; and point our attention strongly to the probable cause, namely, the protrusion of the vein from below.'

The independent minerals particularly noticed are, chlorite, (which is frequently crystallized,) calcareous and brown spar, (the former of a pink colour, and nearly transparent, and the latter frequently displaying the golden metallic lustre,) micaceous iron ore, of peculiar brilliancy, and oxidulous iron, in the form of octoëdral crystals.

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Great Cumbray, in geological composition, corresponds with the middle region of Bute, and thus connects the sand-stone of that tract with that of the opposite coast of Ayrshire. The over-lying trap, however, is present only in a very limited patch: but veins of that substance abound, 'while they are also highly conspicuous, traversing the sand-stone in various places, but appearing to be most numerous in the neighbourhood of the ferry. They cross the island in a somewhat north-easterly course, being at times curved, but generally straight. One instance occurs where the vein is bent at right angles, being at the same time of considerable dimensions; a circumstance very unusual. These veins are of various breadths, ranging from six feet to as many yards. They are commonly erect, and often stand high above the surface like walls; a phenomenon not very uncommon in many of the Western Islands. One of them is particularly remarkable for the length through which its course is visible, as well as for its continuous projection along the whole line.'

Little Cumbray, which is separated from the Great by a narrow strait, is composed of trap; thus resembling the southern point of Bute on the one hand, and corresponding on the other to *Pencross* on the main land, where the trap extends to the shore in a precipitous face. In aspect and texture, however, it differs from the rocks of the Garroch Head, and consists of clink-stone, passing to clay-stone, and presenting various intermediate stages of transition; being at times porphyritic, or else amygdaloidal. Some of the cavernous varieties are scarcely to be distinguished from scoriform lavas.

'It has been said that no instance of a trap strictly cavernous exists, but that in all cases the cavities are the result of the loss of those minerals which previously occupied them when they were in the form of amygdaloids. But such cavities are found deeply imbedded in solid rocks to which the weather can have had no access, and under circumstances where water could not have dissolved and removed an imbedded nodule. Such is the case here in a very remarkable degree.

'That any other cause but the extrication of air should have produced these cavities is highly improbable, and, on the igneous view of the origin of these rocks, the existence of such a cause is sufficiently proved. Whether there is any necessity for admitting, generally, that the rocks of this tribe have been in a fluid state under great pressure, or not, it is here unnecessary to inquire; but it is sufficiently plain that in this particular case, whatever be the period and the place of fusion, the incumbent weight has not been sufficient to prevent the extrication of air from the fluid mass. Out of many that might be quoted, I shall here add one more instance only of this fact, on account of its locality: the reasons

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reasons for quoting it will immediately suggest themselves. It is in the rock of Edinburgh Castle, in which similar cavities are found sparingly dispersed at a depth of many feet from the surface of the most solid masses. There appears indeed no reason to doubt that the amygdaloids in general bear marks of the same origin, and that the present substances which form their imbedded nodules have been deposited by secretion or infiltration into cavities, in cases where the loose texture of the rock, and the materials of which it was composed, admitted of such solutions being formed; a process similar to that by which fissures in limestone and in schist are now daily filled.'

The conoidal island or rather rock of *Ailsa*, which rises majestically to the height of 1100 feet, is nearly equidistant from the coasts of Argyll and Ayrshire. The top is laboriously accessible in one direction; but its perpendicular faces, which can be seen to advantage only by sailing round it, constitute its most striking feature; the columnar ranges producing an effect that is not surpassed by those of Staffa, the Shiant isles, or Sky: the uniform dark hue of these last, 'without variety or contrast, often confounding the whole in indiscriminate gloom.' Though not so regular as those of Staffa, the columns of Ailsa are greatly more elevated, rising to upwards of 400 feet; and, judging from the fragments which have been detached, they reach to six feet and upwards in diameter.

'The broken summits of the columns, huge fragments of which encumber the beach below, serve to give a variety that increases the general picturesque effect. These are the habitations and nests of the gannets, of which innumerable flocks annually breed here; forming with the various tribes of gulls, puffins, auks, and other seafowl, a feathered population scarcely exceeded by that of St. Kilda, or the Flannan isles. As the alarm occasioned by the arrival of a boat spreads itself, the whole of this noisy multitude takes wing, forming a cloud in the atmosphere which bears a striking resemblance to a fall of snow, or to the scattering of autumnal leaves in a storm. To prevent interference in their courses, each cloud of birds occupies a distinct stratum in the air, circulating in one direction, and in a perpetual wheeling flight.'—

'Ailsa is composed of a single rock, no difference being perceived between the amorphous and the columnar parts. The whole mass must be considered as one of the numerous modifications of the syenite of the trap family. It consists of an almost uniform basis of greyish compact felspar, occasionally tinged with a brownish or reddish hue, having small grains of quartz interspersed throughout. Together with that, it contains black spots, formed of very minute particles of hornblende, collected in small groups and condensed towards a central point. It adds another variety to the list of those rocks which, like basalt, are capable of assuming a columnar form. Numerous trap veins traverse this

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rock. They are of considerable dimensions, and from the abrupt forms of the cliffs expose their courses for a great space; presenting this geological fact in a very interesting view. The greater number are vertical, or at least highly erect, and they are attended with no disturbance or derangement of the surrounding rocks beyond that of simple separation; nor is there any alteration of either rock visible at the planes of contact.'

A supplementary section on the *Garvh Island* is particularly deserving of perusal; both because it relates to a solitary district of which the geology has perhaps never been formerly explored, and because it establishes the fact of *organic remains* occurring in a member of the calcareous series which alternates with gneiss; or, in other words, in a *primary* rock.

The *Isle of Man* is naturally divided into two dissimilar portions; the southern, and by far the larger, consisting of an irregular group of mountain-land; and the northern presenting an alluvial and flat tract, which is supposed to have resulted from some great diluvian action, directed from the south, and nearly in the line of the channel which separates England from Ireland. This hypothesis derives additional probability from the larger boulders, partly of granite, which are strewed on the surface of the island; and which, from their composition, must evidently have been transported from some distant point. The quantity of granite observed *in situ* does not extend to many yards; and, having been subjected to the action of water, it is every where decomposed. Schist is the great and predominant rock, occupying at least five-sixths of the surface. Its more tender varieties are in a state of rapid disintegration. In many places the fissile portions are thick, and well adapted for flags of large dimensions: but they are generally broken in the act of quarrying, and used for building-stone. The quarries at Spanish-head yield another variety, which is of a fibrous texture, and *elastic*; and which is raised in long narrow slabs for lintels and similar objects. A whitish hone-slate occurs at a place called *Montpellier*, as drawing slate does near Peel. The next rock in point of extent and importance is the lime-stone; which is either stratified and conchiferous, or unstratified, and seldom containing any shells: but both kinds are at times unexpectedly intermingled. 'At Pool vash, and within extreme high-water mark, is found a series of beds, of a very dark colour, approaching to black, which have long been wrought as marble. They possess a sort of historical celebrity from having furnished the steps which ascend to the entrance of St. Paul's cathedral; á present, as is well known, from the bishop of this diocese. They are now wrought for grave-stones only, since they are, from

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from their argillaceous nature, incapable of receiving a polish.' —The last rock is red sand-stone; which occurs, visibly at least, only to an inconsiderable extent, and is used for building.

As to the actual contact of the schist with the granite, it is not any where discernible, but may perhaps take place at no great distance from the spot where the latter is exposed to view; since the rolled fragments contain pieces of intermingled schist. The granite decomposes by exfoliating round a central nucleus, which is gradually diminished, yet remains to all appearance sound. The same mode of disintegration may sometimes be remarked among the trap-rocks.—With regard to the stratified and unstratified lime-stones, they appear to be members of the same deposit, and in some places to penetrate to a great depth. Occasionally, they are traversed by trap-veins, the ramifications of which, in particular spots, assume a complicated aspect. A careful investigation of the whole series warrants the inference that the want of stratification, and of organic remains, is no infallible criterion of the primitive nature of lime-stone; and that a crystalline texture is no correct index of its geological relations.

The metalliferous veins contain lead, yellow copper pyrites, and iron ore: but some of these which were formerly worked are now abandoned. Among the independent mineral substances enumerated, wolfram is the most remarkable; detached pieces, connected with quartz, having been discovered in the vicinity of Fox-dale mine: 'but the attempts which were made to trace it to its source in the hill did not succeed. The specimens still preserved are of considerable magnitude.'

Before we terminate this analytical report, it behoves us to state that, protracted as it may appear to some of our readers, it offers but a faint and imperfect abstract of the voluminous mass of information which Dr. M. has collected; that large portions of the details cannot be duly apprehended without reference to the maps and plates, a department of the publication that bespeaks the author's powers of delineating the objects which he has so happily described; and that not merely the student of geology, but the general scholar and the statesman, may profit by the Doctor's miscellaneous and enlightened observations.

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ART. X. *Undine;* a Romance. Translated from the German, By George Soane, A. B. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall.

ART. XI. *Sintram and his Companions;* a Romance. From the German of Frederic Baron de la Motte Fouqué, Author of Undine, &c. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Oliers. 1820.

IN treating of the German romance, it will be found peculiarly requisite, perhaps more than in the case of any other country, to consider the national spirit and character of this species of writing. It is only thus that we are enabled to appreciate its worth, and to make fair allowances for those *apparent* peculiarities, and *real* distinctions of national taste and feeling, which exist between the literatures of different people. The Germans themselves have of late evinced so much of this liberality of feeling and impartial criticism towards the writers of other nations, and have so disinterestedly and laboriously opened to us nobler and juster views of the higher objects and tendencies of literature and the arts, that we ought not in fairness to withhold our approbation, and the expression of a similar spirit of truth and candour in our literary intercourse with them. With all due deference to that saving caution and those critical alarms, which were manifested by Voltaire, Boileau, and Bossuet, lest this amicable disposition and international good-will should sap the foundations of strong criticism, and deprive the mass of a portion of its gall, we are really of opinion that a little more freedom and lenity might be safely shewn towards the works and the genius of various ages and nations, without detracting from the strength and essence of critical rebuke.

Though the efficacy of fixed rules, and of principles of sound taste and judgment, considered as the test of modern works of originality and power, should never be questioned, yet, as genius, like charity, may be allowed "to cover a multitude of sins," we think that where much good abounds, with some little alloy of excentricity and peculiarity of character, those rules and principles ought not to be very rigorously enforced. The redeeming power of excellence is, after all, like virtues in individual character, the true ground on which authors must rely for a fair reception and just estimation of their productions. A want of impartial feeling produced the strictures of Voltaire on Shakspeare; and, without a deep sense and belief of general truth and excellence, of national worth, and of peculiar literary endowments and advantages, in the possession of other nations besides our own, we can never form an estimate of the state of literature and the progress of the human mind.

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We know that a foreign language, as well as the works which it serves to embody, always appears in its formation and expression, on a slight acquaintance, strange and perplexing, not to say revolting, to our ideas. Now the same feeling at first attaches, and in an equal degree, to the peculiar spirit and character which distinguish the literature of every nation; and no small time and study are requisite to overcome the disagreeable sense of obscurity, vagueness, and uncertainty, in our decisions on the excellences or the defects of works of art and imagination belonging to another people. A similar sensation is felt on first beholding foreign scenery, life, and manners; and it is only on a more intimate acquaintance, and mature consideration, that we are enabled correctly to judge of the nature and tendencies of the novelties which we behold.

These remarks are far from inapplicable to the tales at present before us, if we reflect on the charges often advanced against German romance and sentiment, that they are extravagant and absurd in the subjects, the moral, and the characters of the story. Much of the strength of this accusation rests, we apprehend, on a dissimilarity of taste and feeling, rather than on any inherent defect, or attributable inferiority, in the writers of English or of German romance. The observation that "a little knowlege is a dangerous thing" will admit of very general application; and a more intimate study of the national tone and character, even of the German romance, would lead to a considerable modification of the censure which has been cast on it. It is still more important to add that a material alteration and reformation have taken place in the literature of Germany, since the censure in question was excited by the extravagances of its dramatic and romance writers of past years; much of which improvement is to be attributed to the able writings of the two Schlegels.

The system of castle-building (in the air) is undoubtedly very different in Germany from that which prevails elsewhere. Still, as Madame de Staël observes, the Germans *do* know how to build, *after all*; and the genius of their labours, like their climate, rough and stormy in aspect, presents scenes of a dark, cold, and desolated nature, peopled with beings of a strange and unearthly growth; the offspring of a calm but elevated imagination, and of solitary philosophic thought, which seeks, beyond the bounds of common existence and humanity, the grandeur and beauty of imaginary worlds. In the strength and audacity of their northern genius, the Germans are not satisfied, like the writers of other nations, with

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with founding the romantic character on the wild and improbable incidents and exaggerated events of a merely human nature, only mingling with a sparing hand the use of supernatural agencies: for they boldly avail themselves of the admitted system of the latter as the very ground-work and essence of romance, out of which they form incidents and characters of a purely imaginative nature. The English seldom venture beyond the fictitious and improbable as the subject of their works: but the Germans grasp at an ideal world, and lay the scene and characters alternately in real or imaginary life. In such an attempt they likewise generally succeed; while the first of our English novelists has lamentably failed in a recent endeavour to naturalize the system in our own country: not reflecting that the national spirit of this species of literature is widely dissimilar, and irreconcilable to the genius of English or Scotch romance. We thus feel interested in the wild and daring creations of La Motte Fouqué, strange and fantastic as we must allow them to be, while the White Lady of Avenel excites only derision or disgust.

The chief characteristic of the German, as distinguished from the English romance, is a bolder and more dreary spirit; which in fact admits of stronger supernatural exhibitions of fatality, and the struggles of human interests and passions, mixed with those deeper and shadowy feelings which depend less on the changes and realities of life than on the original and arbitrary powers of their human author. An union of sentimental and metaphysical reasoning is likewise displayed in the developement of the passions, with an imagination often morbid and unequal; which delights in creating, out of the real and natural modes of existence, beings of an unusual yet earthly race, subject to some fixed destiny, and the unearthly interference of good and evil agents, genii, and master-spirits "of the flood or wild." Such creations are not meant to be considered by the writer as a mere arbitrary play of the fancy, or as fictitious and amusing representations of character and events, without farther purposes in view: they are rather intended to delineate allegorically the secret springs and workings of the human mind; to embody and shadow forth some unknown truths of the moral world; and to disclose the hidden mysteries and motives which influence our thoughts, and exercise an unconscious power of evil or of good, according as they are resisted or promoted by our own free will when their tendencies become manifest to the mind.

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This peculiar and metaphysical exemplification of human life is the subject of Baron Fouqué's works; and on this ground, aided by high poetic genius and descriptive powers, they deserve the attention of the critic and the reader. Thus, in pursuance of this singular principle, we find in the tale of Undine the evil influence of supernatural power, assisted by the weakness of human inclinations, as allegorized in the character of Sir Huldbrand of Ringstetten; while the unfortunate effects of ill-assorted unions are shewn in the fate of Undine. Though aware of the latitude of application and the imaginary suppositions which attach to allegorical reasoning, and which are known to puzzle the judgment in subjects both human and divine, from the Jewish Lawgiver to Homer, and from Homer down to Spenser and Milton, we have yet sufficient *faith in personification* to believe, in common with some of his admirers, that this German author, Frederic Baron de la Motte Fouqué, *may* have intended to shew the triumph of the flesh over the spirit, if we resist not stoutly, in the inconstancy and subsequent death of Sir Huldbrand. When the warm flesh-and-blood interest of Bertalda has seduced his affections from the pure and gentle Undine, the result is tragic, and the moral is imprinted in the misfortunes of them both. Sintram, on the other hand, exemplifies a moral victory, in the triumph of the mind over worldly sin and temptations. Though his patience and good resolutions are put to a severer proof than those of St. Antony of old, we are happy to acquaint our readers that he comes forth from the ordeal of Love only more purified in heart and spirit.

After having said thus much of the allegorical, we must dwell a little more closely on the real and tangible properties of the author. Without the finer qualities and more subdued tone of feeling which our English writers of a similar class evince, Fouqué contrives to exercise a more powerful influence over the imagination, and transports us in the enthusiasm of inventive genius into a fanciful world of his own. His writings are richly embued with a national spirit of romance, impressed with the same dark and shadowy character that belongs to the early legends and heroic traditions of the north. Strong, rapid, and contrasted feelings, and the passions of the moral world, are strangely mingled with the terrible and fleeting phænomena of supernatural creation; haunting the human mind, and appearing and passing away in the nature of a dream. The chief characters are delineated by the hand of a master, stand prominently forward, and absorb the interest of the piece: the inferior figures

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figures are drawn also in strong and lively colours, representing the life and terror of a tragic picture: while the striking and rapid course of incident, passions, and events, like the contrasts of light and shade, seems busy in lending force and animation to the principal action of the whole.

With regard to supernatural representations of good and evil, we may admit the propriety of introducing them into the regions of poetry or romance, provided that they be moulded and applied by a skilful hand: but, if therefore we do not make exceptions to the author's system in this respect, we must reprobate the extent to which he has carried it in a few instances, in which he taxes too severely our ideas of consistency and probability. This false application of the marvellous is more manifest in Undine than in Sintram; where seers, ghosts, and misty phantoms, occur under rather more reasonable forms, times, and places, than the undefined appearances which haunt our progress through the story of Undine. Occasionally, much confusion ensues between the supernatural and the human personages who assemble on the fairy stage of the author's imagination; where he exhibits them with too evident a study of theatrical effect, disguising or revealing their motions and purposes with the experienced hand of an exhibitor of a phantasmagorian shew. If the characters, however, are not altogether consistent, they are interesting and highly imaginative, and described in diction at once simple and poetical. We wish that we could say the same of the translation: but we are afraid that Mr. Soane has occasionally failed in catching the spirit of the original. His language is expressive, but not well sustained throughout, being sometimes too plain and unpolished, and at others too much studied and refined. He has likewise taken, by his own confession, neither few nor trifling liberties with the original, and regrets that he did not go farther. His alterations are indeed generally calculated for adapting the work to the taste of English readers: but we do not much approve of expunging and substituting on these occasions.

The story of Undine is of a supernatural character throughout. The heroine, as her name implies, is sprung like Venus from the sea, though of a calmer and more pure constitution than that goddess. In fact, she is "a gay creature of the elements," one that loves to play — not "in the rainbow, or the plighted clouds,"—but at the bottom of the Mediterranean sea. Though we own that this does not at first sound very romantic, yet, when we reflect that the author might have referred us for her origin to the bottom of the *German Ocean*, we shall feel somewhat reconciled to the alternative.

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alternative. Undine, then, is a sea-nymph, a native of the Mediterranean, and daughter of a prince of the high seas; resembling in person the naiads or water-nymphs of antiquity, who were romantically wont to lift their lily-hands from the fountain-wave, and deigned to mingle their pure essence with the grosser elements of our poor human nature: more particularly when some beautiful knight, or distressed damsel, called forth the homage of their love or pity. It appears that the race of Undine, however, is of mortal extraction; with the exception that one of the daughters of the prince of the Mediterranean may obtain, by the chance of an intimate union with a Christian knight, the benefit of an immortal soul. As the old prince is ambitious of this laudable distinction, he resolves to secure it for Undine; and her uncle Kuhleborn is commissioned, like Pandarus of Troy, to conduct the details of the business. Through his agency, we find the hero, Ritter or Knight Huldbrand, of Castle Ringstetten on the banks of the Donau, lost in the depths and mazes of a wild enchanted forest. After strange adventures, he arrives by supernatural means, driven on and terrified by Kuhleborn, at the hut of a poor fisherman, 'who sat mending his nets on a summer's evening before the door of his cottage.' Here he first beholds Undine; who, in pursuit of immortality, had fixed on this lovely spot to celebrate her nuptials with some Christian knight, and had become foster-daughter to the fisherman and his wife. No farther spells are now required to compel Sir Huldbrand to love; the beauty, gaiety, and sweetness of Undine being fully sufficient to complete the rest, without any supernatural aid. While only a *mortal* creature of the elements, she is full of strange whims and humours, and plays a variety of tricks which arise from want of *seriousness of soul:* but Sir Huldbrand loves and at last espouses her, without ever dreaming of the little stroke of *diablerie* which she has played him, though he does dream of many unpleasant things. When she is thus gifted with a soul, and become sensible of its importance, we find her much more seriously inclined; and, instead of the wild, laughter-loving, and freakish Undine, we behold a very delightful pattern for young-married ladies. Her object is thus accomplished: but, as we have already intimated, the fate of her knight is melancholy; because, conceiving that he has for ever lost Undine, who supernaturally disappears, he has actually married Bertalda when the re-appearance of Undine condemns him to the death which, by the laws of her existence, she is obliged to inflict on her faithless husband. — We shall give no farther particulars of the story, which

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which would carry us too far: but, with regard to the hero we must observe that his character and knightly deportment are finely drawn, and remind us of the courage and fearful adventures of Rinaldo in the *Jerusalem Delivered*. The Baron Fouqué appears, indeed, to unite the delicacy and rich pathos of Tasso with something of the wildness and terrible delineations of Shakspeare. He has also a portion of that intuitive power which is the surest proof of genius; and which, without actual observation, preserves truth and consistency in description, as well as in motives, action, and character. He has even too much imagination, not sufficiently corrected by taste and judgment; and he is thus frequently led to push the strength of his genius, and the beauty of his language and descriptions, to an extravagant and faulty degree, whether in violence or in simplicity of detail. The style and character of his works are singular, and somewhat paradoxical: but we do not think that his genius depends alone on surprize and novelty, for the strong power which it certainly exercises over the mind. There is nothing weak and flimsy, though there is much "strange matter in his talk." He is altogether a very philosophic and metaphysical writer of romance; and those who are fond of exploring their own minds, and capable of deep and lasting impressions, with serious, disappointed, or sorrowful views of nature and the world, will feel highly interested, if not relieved and joyful, in dwelling on the strange and fearful imaginations of La Motte Fouqué.

We have alluded to the fate of Sir Huldbrand, and we cannot refrain from describing it in the author's manner, though not his *words*, for we must take those of Mr. Soane. The time is the evening of his marriage with his second wife.

'The knight had dismissed his servants, — he stood half undressed before a large glass, with sad recollections of the past, and sadder forebodings of the future, — the tapers burnt red and dimly, — there was a light tapping without upon the door. — "It was thus," he whispered to himself, "Undine used once playfully to announce her coming — but it is all phantasy — I must into the wedding bed." — "You must, indeed, but into a dark, cold bed," said a soft but thrilling voice. As he looked in the glass, he saw the door gently open, — the figure in white entered — and again the bolts of the lock shot back into their fastenings. It murmured, "Now I am here, and now you must die!" His heart beat high, — his breath came thick and short, he felt that it could not but be so, and covering his eyes he exclaimed, "Make me not mad with terror in my dying hour — if you hide a countenance of terror beneath that veil, let me not see it — judge me without my looking on thy face." — "Alas!"

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replied Undine, "will you not look on me yet once again? I am now as when you first saw me in the cottage." — "Oh, if it were so," sighed Huldbrand, "and I could die upon thy bosom — in thy kisses." — "It shall be so, my beloved," she replied, and her veil fell back, and she smiled in all her beauty. Trembling with love, and the mingled fear of approaching death, he bent towards her. — She kissed him with a heavenly kiss, — but she loosed him no more from her embrace, — she wept as she would weep away her soul. He dropt from her arms a lifeless corse.'

We now come more particularly to Sintram; and the reflecting reader is requested to bear in mind the observations made at the beginning of this article, concerning the metaphysical and philosophical significance which *modern* German authors are accustomed to give to their dramas, dramatic tales, and romances; besides occasionally making them vehicles for paradoxes and speculations at open war with existing customs and venerable opinions. This latter system, now nearly extinct, was that on which Kotzebue acted in his *Stranger*, *Virgin of the Sun*, and *Lover's Vows*, and Göethe in his *Werter* and *Stella*; while the former is the basis of Oehlenschlaeger's * *Aladdin*, *partly* of Göethe's *Fauste*, and, conjointly with the doctrine of *fatalism*, of Müllner's *Guilt*. This last mentioned young writer avows, in a sonnet prefixed to his tragedy intitled *King Yngurd*, that his purpose was not to body forth any actual events but "the truth that never *was*, and *is* always." In short, they all delight in *mystification*, and in pursuing "dreamy analogies." They symbolize and typify every thing: yet this is done by no means in a crude and clumsy manner; and it may be said of them with more justice than Hazlitt has said of Spenser's Fairy Queen, "that, if we do not meddle with the allegory, the allegory will not meddle with us." Nevertheless, they have certainly failed, as yet, in exciting the same depth of interest in healthy minds, which was called forth by the older English dramatists, with Shakspeare at their head: but our limits will not allow us, at present, to inquire whether this arises from want of skill in the workmen, or from an inherent defect in the primary conception. Though we may incline to the former opinion for several reasons, much waste of ink must take place ere this question will be satisfactorily determined. No argument can be allowed that is taken from the system not having hitherto succeeded. The discussion must be in its nature purely metaphysical, and as it were prospective.

* Author of the tragedies of *Hacon Yarl* and *Correggio*. This gentleman is a Dane, but is to be classed among German literati.

Fred.

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Fred. von Hardenburgh (the deceased friend and fellow-collegian of the Schlegels) has remarked that "a genuine tale must be marvellous, mysterious, and hanging together. The whole world of nature must be wonderously mixed up with the world of spirits; thus arises nature's state of nature. A genuine tale must be at the same time a prophetic representation, an ideal representation, and an absolutely necessary representation. The genuine tale-writer is a seer of futurity." These rather mystic but pregnant words afford a complete key to the plan on which Fouqué has perhaps unconsciously worked; and the art displayed in his human creations incomparably exceeds the art of Müllner, because it is better concealed. Müllner is too vain of his metaphysical acquirements, and is consequently oftentimes defective in *keeping*; he is an ostentatious mental anatomist, who will allow no concealing drapery in his pictures. His characters are perpetually searching into the latent springs of their own thoughts and actions, for the edification of the audience. In Müllner's affections, the *end* is postponed for the *means*; and he seems rather to plume himself on a mere cold sound understanding, than on that intuitive sympathetic feeling which is the only instrument that can enable a poet to soften and master the unadulterated heart. Fouqué is the very reverse of all this: he never thrusts the fashionable borrowed doctrine of *destiny* in our faces: but all things, in his romances, calmly reach their appointed end, drawn along as in nature gradually yet always progressively, — softly, yet irresistibly, — by an imperceptible chain. This is the right way to obtain for a book a permanent existence in the sympathies of man; for 'in poetical works we should see,' as the translator of Sintram has elsewhere remarked, 'only the products of the invisible power, not the generative process; and an attempt to render that which is invisible visible is an absolute contradiction, which can only apparently succeed through the substitution of some gross fiction.' This contradiction is not found in Baron Fouqué; who, in his seemingly wildest flights, preserves a beautiful consistency with himself. As the translator of Sintram observes in his preface;

'He never digresses from his subject to make an ostentatious parade of his learning, or of his descriptive powers, or of his fancy, or of his knowlege of human nature: the poet has no thought of himself, not even the most secret lurking of vanity, but keeps the visitations of his genius, and ponders them in his heart.' — 'Hence there is nothing prominent in his works. Beautiful and sublime as his scenes, and speeches, and descriptions, and images are, half their beauty at least is lost, when they

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are severed from the stem out of which they grow. Thither they belong, and there they must be seen to be duly understood and admired.' —

'The customary modes in which the characters of modern poetry exist are twofold, the sentimental and the prudential. The former refers every thing to self-love, and is ever talking about itself; the latter to self-interest, and is ever calculating for itself. The third mode of existence, the real and natural, is nowhere to be found so universally preserved as in Fouqué. Every body bears indeed a peculiar tinge from the author's brave, chivalrous spirit; but every body exists in strong, unquestionable reality.'

From these generic characters of the poet's mind, we must proceed to notice briefly their application in Sintram; 'which,' says the translator, 'formed the winter-number in a poetical journal called "The Seasons;" the spring-number of which had been taken up with the loveliest of all tales, *Undine*.'

'When compared with Undine, Sintram, it must be allowed, wears a wintry aspect; but such was its design; and it is a winter that is worthy to follow after so fresh a spring. And as every season contains within itself seeds and signs of all the others, as there are days in spring which tell of winter, and days in winter which forbode spring, and as every season moreover has its own peculiar beauties, and even winter has the glory of its snow and ice, so has Sintram also both its messengers from the realms of sunshine, and its own appropriate wintry charms. And in one respect, in its conclusion, it is still more beautiful and harmonious than Undine. For one personage (Bertalda) remains there, over whom the author has omitted to cast a single gleam of hope. But never did earthly spring arise out of its wintry shell with such heavenly serenity, as glistens over the conclusion of Sintram. Nowhere is every thing more lovelily atoned and reconciled. Nowhere has the author proved himself more deserving of the high title which he has received, of the Christian Poet.'

We do not intend to enter into a full illustration of the hidden principles discoverable in Sintram, which would necessarily interest but few, and those few are themselves fully competent to the task; nor to forestall the delight of many by analyzing the story. As to the former object, let it suffice to hint at the personified struggle of good and evil in man's heart, with the final triumph of faith and patient trust; and, for the second, to state that Sintram's temptations are not incurred primarily by his own weakness, but he is made a fearful example of the sins of fathers being visited on their children. How this befell him is given '*right explicitly*' in the words of 'the pious Rolf, the old squire and good genius of the poor Sintram.' The scene is laid in Drontheim

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Castle, in Norway, shortly after the introduction of Christianity there, and the relation is made to the chaplain:

'It is now seven years ago, that on the Christmas-feast there was much discourse between my lord and his warriors concerning the German merchants, and how one might repress the pride of the ever mightier sea-port-towns. Then Sir Biorn (Sintram's father) stretched forth his hands towards the evil boar-image of pure gold, and vowed without any pity to put to death the German merchants, whom their destiny, in whatsoever manner it might be, let fall alive into his power. The gracious Lady Verena turned pale and tried to interrupt him, but it was too late; the bloody word was out. And instantly, as if the tyrant of the dark place must immediately fasten upon his forfeited vassal with many bonds at once, there came at the self-same moment a warder into the hall, and announced that two citizens of a German merchant-town, an old man and his son, had been stranded near the castle, and were standing without claiming the protection of its lord.

'This struck icily upon the soul of the knight; but he believed himself to be bounden by his word of honour, and by the accursed heathenish golden boar. We servants received orders to assemble ourselves with sharply pointed steel lances in the castle-court, in order thus at the first signal speedily to despatch the poor claimants of our protection. For the first time, and also, I hope, for the last time in my life, I said No to the command of my lord. He answered half in wrath, half in mockery: "Go up to the windows of my lady. Go up, Rolf the pious, I tell thee, so women and women will come together." I thought: "Do thou only mock me!" and went silently my appointed way.

'Then there met me upon the stairs two strange and right fearful persons, whom I had never yet seen; I know not too how they came into the castle. The one was long and large, and looked terribly pale, and very, very gaunt; the other was a little mannikin with quite hideous features and mien. Yea, as I collected myself and looked at them closely, it verily seemed to me—— But enough; they walked down towards the court, and I up to the chambers of my mistress. She instantly ordered me, with the still holy power which you know in her, to attend her down into the court; she must turn away the horror of this night, or herself perish together with it. We were forced to pass the little bed of the sleeping Sintram; Oh God! the hot tears fell from my eyes, as he breathed so stilly and tranquilly, and smiled in his friendly slumber! We approached the windows of the lower stairs, when we plainly distinguished the voice of the elder of the two merchants, and his noble countenance was also clear to me through the bars by the torch-light, and beside him the blooming head of his son. "I call the Lord God to witness," he cried out, "that I thought to do no evil unto this house. But I must surely have fallen into the midst of heathendom, instead of into the castle of a Christian knight; and if it be so, then only strike, and thou, my heart's dear son, die patiently and stedfastly: in heaven we shall

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shall learn why it could not be otherwise." I thought that I saw the two fearful ones also in the throng of warriors. The pale one had a large sword like a scythe in his hand; the little one a strangely jagged spear.

'Then Verena tore open the window, and cried as with a flute's tones through the wild night: "Dear lord and husband of my soul, for your only child's sake have pity on these pious men! Save them from death, and resist the temptations of the evil spirit!" The knight answered, — let me not say what. He set his child upon the cast; he called upon Death and the Devil, if he held not his word.'

These two companions, 'Death and his Mate,' haunt Sintram until his glorious triumph. We shall add one other extract, which may suffer least (though it *must* suffer) from its violent dislocation. Sintram is now grown up; and has just intreated the fair Gabrielle (a beautiful creature, the wife of Folko, the high baron of Montfaucon, then sojourning at Drontheim Castle,) to sing a 'little song to her graceful lute.' The lady carols a lay of Spring,

'When the flowers are appearing
In the blithe month of May,'

a song of her birth-place.

'"Have you such a birth-place, so highly wonderful, so measurelessly rich in songs?" cried Sintram, with enthusiasm. And at the same time he sank with deep, courteous humility, upon both his knees before the beautiful lady, who in some confusion stretched out her fair hand to him, and said, gently raising him up: "One who finds so much delight in song, must surely also know how to awaken it right pleasantly. There, take my lute, and let us hear some beautiful, spirited lay."

'But Sintram gently waved back the delicate instrument, and said, "God preserve these gentle sounds, these slender strings from my unruly hand! Even if I would flatter them friendly at the beginning, yet at length in the swing of the tones my wild indwelling spirit would come upon me, and it would be all over with the voice and with the shape of the lovely lute. No, allow me to fetch my mighty harp, with its strings of bears' nerves, and its brass-bound casement. For in truth I do feel myself inspired to sing and to play." Gabrielle whispered half smiling, half terrified, her Yes; and swift as an arrow had Sintram borne in his strange instrument, and began to its echoing, deeply powerful sounds, with no less powerful voice, the following song:

'"Whither, thou knight, o'er the stormy sea?"
"My sails are spread for the south countree."
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'"I have waded about long enough through the snow,
And now will I dance where the fields are aglow."
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

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'By sun-light and star-light he steers away fast,
And in Naples' bay his anchor is cast.
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'There a lovely-eyed maiden walks on the strand;
Her hair it is bound in a golden band.
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'"God greet thee, God greet thee, thou maiden so fine!
This very day thou must be mine."
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'"My lord, I am a Margrave's bride;
This very morning the knot will be tied."
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'"Let him come and make proof of his sword on the knight,
And he shall keep thee who best can fight."
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'"My lord, seek out another fere,
A garland of fair ones blossoms here."
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'"On thee my mind has once been set,
And nought in the world that mind shall let."
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'Then the Margrave came down, and with wrath did rave:
Then the Norman laid him in his grave.
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!

'And thus said he, merrily striking his shield,
"Now will I keep bride, and castle, and field!"
O thou land with the beautiful blossoms!'

'Sintram was silent; but his eyes sparkled fiercely, and the strings of the harp still ever sounded in their boldest swing, and echoed in the wildest eddies. Biorn had raised himself proudly up in his seat, stroked his mighty beard, and joyously rattled his sword. Gabrielle trembled indeed at the wild song and at these strange forms, but only until she cast a look upon Sir Folko of Montfaucon, who sat smiling there in all his hero-strength, and calmly let the fierce clamour dash by him, as if it were the raging of the autumnal tempest.'

We wished to add, 'the mild and comfortable song' of the pilgrim, which occurs at p. 178.: but we must refrain. Let us not, however, omit to remark that many grand and striking descriptions of northern life and scenery are interspersed; among which the night-interview of the hero with Death's mate on the sea-coast, the account of the battle with Folko of Montfaucon, the bear-hunting, and the meeting with old Earl Eirik, are powerfully depicted.

The preceding short quotations will sufficiently manifest the simplicity, sweetness, and power of Fouqué's style, as well as

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as the singular system of version which has been adopted by his warm-hearted translator *; and which, whatever its defects may be, shews a poetical feeling and a high relish for his original.

The *History* of Sintram, for so it may be termed, arose from a birth-day present made to the author, and was not chosen with a distinct moral purpose, which would have rendered it cold and artificial, but received its present significance as a natural effect of the Baron's peculiar habits of meditation. The *present* was Albert Durer's scarce print of "*The Knight attended by Death and the Fiend*," 'and was accompanied,' says the Baron, 'by a request that I would explain the mysterious forms by a ballad. It was not vouchsafed unto me to do so in those days, but I bare the image continually round about with me, in peace and in war, until it has now spun itself out and shaped itself quite clearly before me; but instead of a ballad, a little romance, if the friendly reader will let it pass as such.'

In conclusion, we may illustrate by a simile our ideas of the powers of Fouqué as opposed to those of the author of the Scotch novels. The inventions of the latter are fruits unequally ripened in our mutable climate, glowing and luscious on the one side, but green and tasteless on the other; while the fancies of the German are like those of the '*south countree*, the land with the beautiful blossoms,' gradually expanded, and plenteously fed with soft sun-beams till their full growth is accomplished. This comparison of the genius of Fouqué with that of our northern novelist may be derided by those who judge of quality by quantity; and it may strike the most unprejudiced reader of *modern* English literature as a startling and uncomfortable paradox. Nevertheless, we might even go farther, and state that the former is in a higher class, and is in its essence more permanent; inasmuch as he who developes the passions and sufferings of man in the abstract, from the depths and ponderings of his own mind, without becoming uninterestingly general, is a far more intellectual and commanding spirit than the mind which depends on diligent reading, and on a quick though not solid observation, aided by a lively fancy, rather than on an imagination lofty, clear, and pervading, and feelings intense in their natural state, though subdued and purified by solemn reflection and meditation. The *Genius* of the author of Waverley (for a certain

* This gentleman's preface bears the signs of thought, and his reasons therefore deserve a calm and unprejudiced inquiry into their soundness.

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genius, or something very like it, must be granted to him,) is picturesque and splendid, more historic and antiquarian than purely dramatic; while the spirit of Fouqué is as essentially epic as that of Michel Angelo, and for that very reason will perhaps gain among us as few worthy admirers. The real and mysterious beauties of both must be "*caviare* to the general."

Baron Fouqué is author of several other works; among which are "*The Youthful Years of Charlemagne*," "*Sigurd the Serpent-Slayer*,"* and "*The Magic Ring*;" in which many of the characters who figure in Sintram are introduced. He holds the commission of Major in the Prussian service, and we presume is descended from the Baron de la Motte Fouqué whose memoirs are recorded in our lxxxth vol. (*Old Series*,) p. 258.

ART. XII. *The Sketch Book* of Geoffrey Crayon, Gent. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Murray. 1820.

NO: these are not *crayon* sketches; they have not the careless freedom, the broken outline, the random roughnesses of the crayon. On the contrary, it is evident that the camel-hair pencil has lent them its softness; they are smooth and polished, and have all the tint and finish of water-coloured drawings. Without aspiring to the higher merit of strength and originality in design, they are intitled to the praise of elegance in execution.

We understand that the real name of the author is Washington Irving; and that he is an American gentleman who, after having visited various parts of his own country, and indulged his taste for the sublime and beautiful in natural scenery among his own stupendous mountains, lakes, and rivers, became anxious to visit Europe, and see men and manners in more variety and more advanced refinement. Great Britain might well be the object of peculiar attraction; where literature, science, and philosophy spread their immeasurable and blooming branches from one end of the kingdom to the other; inviting by their fragrance, and collecting under their shadow in the north and the east, in the south and the west, societies of men who emulate each other in moral and intellectual attainments.

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* The same with the horny Siegfried of "*The Nibelung Lay*," and "*Queen Chriemhilt's Garden of Roses*;" and we understand that the author has shaped the adventures of his hero rather after the antient *Sagas* than the more modern *Lay*.

It

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It is matter of regret with us that the author, who modestly expresses his consciousness that much of the contents of his papers can be interesting only to American readers, has any cause to say that 'he is aware of the austerity with which the writings of his countrymen have hitherto been treated by British critics;' mildly adding that he solicits for his own production that courtesy and candour which a stranger has some right to claim, who presents himself at the threshold of a hospitable nation.

Mr. Irving cannot fail to have observed that the critics of this country are not always very complacent towards its own authors: but the liberties which they take with one another should not always be extended to strangers. Although we have not to reproach ourselves with using any uncourteous or disparaging expressions, when the subject of America has come before us, we cannot but feel that there is some *general* ground for the charge of critical asperity having been exercised, not merely on American books, but on American manners, genius, character, and customs: — in short, on that inextinguishable spirit of liberty which has raised America to her present rank in the scale of nations, and which is daily adding to her exaltation. Indeed, we are anxious that a people who are brave, intelligent, and acute; industrious, prosperous, and free; and who are sprung, as it were, from our own loins; should be attached to us by feeling as well as by interest. We would have some other bond of union between Great Britain and America than a mere commercial intercourse, and the reciprocation of advantages in trade. As Cosmo de Medici corresponded at once with Cairo and London, and often imported into Italy, in the same vessel, a cargo of Indian spices and of Greek books; so would we encourage an interchange of the emanations of the mind as well as the grosser productions of the earth, the labours of the head as well as of the hands; and, transporting the seeds of European science and philosophy across the Atlantic, gladly should we see them germinating in a grateful soil and under a genial sun. The season of maturity will, at no distant time, arrive, and glorious will be the harvest. In the education of a people, however, (it is remarked by Gibbon,) as in that of an individual, memory must be exercised before the powers of reason and fancy can be expanded; and the artist may not hope to equal or surpass, till he has learned to imitate, the works of his predecessors.

One of the essays in these amusing but desultory volumes relates to the English writers who have published their travels in America. It is written in a very conciliating spirit, and

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will be of essential advantage if it leads the people of this country to receive with caution and scepticism the partial narratives, which are often spread before them with all the semblance of veracity. Mr. Irving says that the books of travels through the Republic, with which our London press has teemed, seem intended to diffuse error rather than knowlege; and he asserts that, notwithstanding the constant intercourse between the two nations, there is no people concerning whom the great mass of the British public have less pure information, or entertain more numerous prejudices.

'English travellers,' says he, 'are the best and the worst in the world. Where no motives of pride or interest intervene, none can equal them for profound and philosophical views of society, or faithful and graphical descriptions of external objects; but when either the interest or reputation of their own country comes in collision with that of another, they go to the opposite extreme, and forget their usual probity and candour, in the indulgence of spleen, and an illiberal spirit of ridicule.

'Hence, their travels are more honest and accurate, the more remote the country described. I would place implicit confidence in an Englishman's description of the regions beyond the cataracts of the Nile; of unknown islands in the Yellow Sea; of the interior of India; or of any other tract which other travellers might be apt to picture out with the illusions of their fancies; but I would cautiously receive his account of his immediate neighbours, and of those nations with which he is in habits of most frequent intercourse. However I might be disposed to trust his probity, I dare not trust his prejudices.

'It has also been the peculiar lot of our country to be visited by the worst kind of English travellers. While men of philosophical spirit and cultivated minds have been envoys from England to ransack the poles, to penetrate the deserts, and to study the manners and customs of barbarous nations, with which she can have no permanent intercourse of profit or pleasure, it has been left to the broken-down tradesman, the scheming adventurer, the wandering mechanic, the Manchester and Birmingham agent, to be her oracles respecting America. From such sources she is content to receive her information respecting a country in a singular state of moral and physical development: a country in which one of the greatest political experiments in the history of the world is now performing, and which presents the most profound and momentous studies to the statesman and the philosopher.

'That such men should give prejudiced accounts of America is not a matter of surprise. The themes it offers for contemplation are too vast and elevated for their capacities. The national character is yet in a state of fermentation; it may have its frothiness and sediment, but its ingredients are sound and wholesome; it has already given proofs of powerful and generous qualities; and the whole promises to settle down into something substantially excellent.

But

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But the causes which are operating to strengthen and ennoble it, and its daily indications of admirable properties, are all lost upon these purblind observers, who are only affected by the little asperities incident to its present situation.'

It would, indeed, be well if we examined a little closely into the opportunities and capacity of judging which our countrymen in America have enjoyed, as well as into the certain preparation for disappointment there which they may have received from luxury at home, before we bestow implicit credence on their accounts. Nothing can surpass our critical vigilance, Mr. I. remarks, in examining the credibility of travellers in some remote and unimportant country, or the strictness with which we compare their measurements of a pyramid, or description of a ruin; or the sternness with which we censure any detected inaccuracy: while we receive almost with eagerness the gross misrepresentations of coarse and obscure writers, concerning a country with which our own is placed in the most important and delicate relations.

Designing writers have propagated the belief in England, that the people of the United States are inimical to the parent-country; and nothing can be half so mischievous and malicious as this conduct, because nothing is so calculated to excite the hostile feeling as a false assumption of its existence. Mr. Irving, indeed, does not deny that considerable political hostility exists, with a *general soreness at the illiberality of the British press:* but he adds that, collectively speaking, the prepossessions of the people of America are *strongly* in favour of England. 'At one time, the bare name of Englishman was a passport to the confidence and hospitality of every family, and too often gave a transient currency to the worthless and the ungrateful.' Even during the last war, we are informed, when the least opportunity occurred for kind feelings to spring forth, it was the delight of generous individuals to shew that in the midst of hostilities they still kept alive the sparks of former and of future friendship. Earnestly, indeed, is the alienation of such a country as America to be deprecated. Though young, she is of giant stature and strength; her antient feelings of respect and veneration for the mother-country are not yet extinguished; and deeply to be execrated as the enemies of both are those bad spirits, who are instilling rancour and resentment into the bosom of either. Nothing is published in England on the subject of America, Mr. Irving says, that does not circulate in every part of it; not a calumny is dropt from an English pen, 'nor an unworthy sarcasm uttered by an English statesman, that does not go to blight good will.' Mere contests of the sword

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sword are flesh-wounds, and it is the pride of the generous to forgive and forget them: but the slanders of the pen, he continues, pierce to the heart, and rankle longest in the noblest spirits. The advice which he gives to his own countrymen is characteristic of a generous nature: avoid recrimination; retort not sarcasm and abuse; it is a paltry and unprofitable contest, the alternative of a little and a morbid mind, fretted into petulance rather than warmed into indignation.

'Let us not be influenced by any angry feelings, so far as to shut our eyes to the perception of what is really excellent and amiable in the English character. We are a young people, necessarily an imitative one, and must take our examples and models, in a great degree, from the existing nations of Europe. There is no country more worthy of our study than England. The spirit of her constitution is most analogous to ours. The manners of her people — their intellectual activity — their freedom of opinion — their habits of thinking on those subjects which concern the dearest interests and most sacred charities of private life, are all congenial to the American character; and, in fact, are all intrinsically excellent; for it is in the moral feeling of the people that the deep foundations of British prosperity are laid; and however the superstructure may be time-worn, or overrun by abuses, there must be something solid in the basis, admirable in the materials, and stable in the structure of an edifice, that so long has towered unshaken amidst the tempests of the world.'

Among the miscellaneous matter which composes these volumes, one article is headed 'John Bull.' In looking at the picture of himself, no man perhaps can form an accurate judgment of the resemblance: but the drawing in this case is spirited, the colouring good, and the portrait altogether so pleasing, that, notwithstanding certain excentricites of feature, we are rather flattered with the hope of its being a likeness. We should trust, therefore, that when it is examined by brother "Jonathan," he may not form so unfavourable an opinion of the original, as he may have been led to conceive from the vulgar and unsightly caricatures which it has suited the purpose of some low and wretched artists to exhibit. Ample credit is given to the good qualities of John Bull, and the most indulgent allowance is made for such as are questionable.

'His virtues are all his own; all plain, homebred and unaffected. His very faults smack of the raciness of his good qualities. His extravagance savours of his generosity; his quarrelsomeness, of his courage; his credulity, of his open faith; his vanity, of his pride; and his bluntness, of his sincerity. They are all the redundancies of a rich and liberal character. He is like his own oak; rough without, but sound and solid within; whose bark abounds

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abounds with excrescences in proportion to the growth and grandeur of the timber; and whose branches make a fearful groaning and murmuring in the least storm, from their very magnitude and luxuriance.'

One of the first places to which a stranger is taken in Liverpool is the Athenæum; and *the* first person to whom he solicits an introduction, if he has any taste for literary pursuits, or any reverential feelings for a man struggling in the decline of life against the storms of fate;—whose unspotted integrity, rare talents, and cultivated taste, ought to have procured for him the sunshine of opulent repose;—who is an ornament to his country, as well as an honour to the town that gave him birth, and which is indebted to him for much of its embellishment and not a little of its celebrity;—is Mr. Roscoe. We must indulge ourselves in extracting a few passages from the elegant and just homage paid to this gentleman by Mr. Irving, as another specimen of his style of writing; and as affording an additional evidence of those feelings of respect towards eminent individuals in this country, which, so much to his honour, he is endeavouring to promote in his own:

'Mr. Roscoe has shut himself up in no garden of thought, nor elysium of fancy; but has gone forth into the highways and thoroughfares of life; he has planted bowers by the way-side, for the refreshment of the pilgrim and the sojourner, and has opened pure fountains, where the labouring man may turn aside from the dust and heat of the day, and drink of the living streams of knowledge. There is a "daily beauty in his life," on which mankind may meditate and grow better. It exhibits no lofty and almost useless, because inimitable, example of excellence; but presents a picture of active, yet simple and imitable virtues, which are within every man's reach, but which not many exercise, or this world would be a paradise.

'But his private life is peculiarly worthy the attention of the citizens of our young and busy country, where literature and the elegant arts must grow up side by side with the coarser plants of daily necessity; and must depend for their culture, not on the exclusive devotion of time and wealth, nor the quickening rays of titled patronage, but on hours and seasons snatched from the pursuit of worldly interests, by intelligent and public spirited individuals.

'He has shown how much may be done for a place in hours of leisure, by one master-spirit, and how completely it can give its own impress to surrounding objects. Like his own Lorenzo De Medici, on whom he seems to have fixed his eye, as on a pure model of antiquity, he has interwoven the history of his life with the history of his native town, and has made the foundations of its fame the monuments of his virtues. Wherever you go, in Liverpool,

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pool, you perceive traces of his footsteps in all that is elegant and liberal. He found the tide of wealth flowing merely in the channels of traffick; he has diverted from it invigorating rills to refresh the gardens of literature. By his own example and constant exertions, he has effected that union of commerce and the intellectual pursuits, so eloquently recommended in one of his latest writings*; and has practically proved how beautifully they may be brought to harmonize, and to benefit each other. The noble institutions for literary and scientific purposes, which reflect such credit on Liverpool, and are giving such an impulse to the public mind, have mostly been originated, and have all been effectively promoted, by Mr. Roscoe; and when we consider the rapidly increasing opulence and magnitude of that town, which promises to vie in commercial importance with the metropolis, it will be perceived that in awakening an ambition of mental improvement among its inhabitants, he has effected a great benefit to the cause of British literature.'

Mr. Irving has studied the manners of the English in their rural occupations and festivities, as well as in the busier and more varied engagements which develope the national character in our metropolis and other large cities. His sketches intitled 'Rural Life in England;' 'The Country Church;' 'The Stage Coach;' 'Christmas Day;' 'The Christmas Dinner,' &c.; and some others, not forgetting 'Little Britain;' are touched with great spirit and vivacity.

We must give a portion of the papers relative to the celebration of the festivities of Christmas, at the seat of a true old fashioned English country-squire, with much regret that we cannot extend our quotation from this lively sketch. (P. 107.)

'Squire Bracebridge kept up old customs in kitchen as well as hall; and the rolling pin, struck upon the dresser by the cook, summoned the servants to carry in the meats:

> 'Just in this nick the cook knocked thrice,
> And all the waiters in a trice
> His summons did obey;
> Each serving man, with dish in hand,
> March'd boldly up, like our train-band,
> Presented, and away.†

'The dinner was served up in the great hall, where the Squire always held his Christmas banquet. A blazing crackling fire of logs had been heaped on to warm the spacious apartment, and the flame went sparkling and wreathing up the wide-mouthed chimney. The great picture of the crusader and his white horse had been profusely decorated with greens for the occasion; and holly and ivy had likewise been wreathed round the helmet and

'* Address on the opening of the Liverpool Institution.'

'† Sir John Suckling.'

weapons

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weapons on the opposite wall, which I understood were the arms of the same warrior. I must own, by the bye, I had strong doubts about the authenticity of the painting and armour as having belonged to the crusader, they certainly having the stamp of more recent days; but I was told that the painting had been so considered time out of mind; and that, as to the armour, it had been found in a lumber room, and elevated to its present situation by the Squire, who at once determined it to be the armour of the family hero; and as he was absolute authority on all such subjects in his own household, the matter had passed into current acceptation. A sideboard was set out just under this chivalric trophy, on which was a display of plate that might have vied (at least in variety) with Belshazzar's parade of the vessels of the temple: "flagons, cans, cups, beakers, goblets, basins, and ewers;" the gorgeous utensils of good companionship that had gradually accumulated through many generations of jovial housekeepers. Before these stood the two yule candles *, beaming like two stars of the first magnitude; other lights were distributed in branches, and the whole array glittered like a firmament of silver.

'We were ushered into this banqueting-scene with the sound of minstrelsy; the old harper being seated on a stool beside the fire-place, and twanging his instrument with a vast deal more power than melody. Never did Christmas board display a more goodly and gracious assemblage of countenances; those who were not handsome, were, at least, happy; and happiness is a rare improver of your hard-favoured visage. I always consider an old English family as well worth studying as a collection of Holbein's

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'* The *Yule clog* is a great log of wood, sometimes the root of a tree, brought into the house with great ceremony, on Christmas eve, laid in the fire-place, and lighted with the brand of the last year's clog. While it lasted, there was great drinking, singing, and telling of tales. Sometimes it was accompanied by Christmas candles; but in the cottages the only light was from the ruddy blaze of the great wood fire. The Yule clog was to burn all night; if it went out it was considered a sign of ill luck.

'Herrick mentions it in one of his songs:

'"Come bring with a noise,
My merrie, merrie boyes,
The Christmas log to the firing;
While my good dame, she
Bids ye all be free,
And drink to your hearts desiring."

'The Yule clog is still burnt in many farm-houses and kitchens in England, particularly in the north, and there are several superstitions connected with it among the peasantry. If a squinting person come to the house while it is burning, or a person barefooted, it is considered an ill omen. The brand remaining from the Yule clog is carefully put away to light the next year's Christmas fire.' P. 66.

portraits

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portraits or Albert Durer's prints. There is much antiquarian lore to be acquired; much knowledge of the physiognomies of former times. Perhaps it may be from having continually before their eyes those rows of old family-portraits, with which the mansions of this country are stocked: certain it is, that the quaint features of antiquity are often most faithfully perpetuated in these ancient lines; and I have traced an old family nose through a whole picture gallery, legitimately handed down from generation to generation, almost from the time of the Conquest. Something of the kind was to be observed in the worthy company around me. Many of their faces had evidently originated in a Gothic age, and been merely copied by succeeding generations; and there was one little girl in particular, of staid demeanour, with a high Roman nose, and an antique vinegar aspect, who was a great favourite of the Squire's, being, as he said, a Bracebridge all over, and the very counterpart of one of his ancestors who figured in the court of Henry VIII.

'The parson said grace, which was not a short familiar one, such as is commonly addressed to the Deity in these unceremonious days; but a long, courtly, well-worded one of the ancient school. There was now a pause, as if something was expected; when suddenly the butler entered the hall with some degree of bustle: he was attended by a servant on each side with a large wax-light, and bore a silver-dish, on which was an enormous pig's head, decorated with rosemary, with a lemon in its mouth, which was placed with great formality at the head of the table. The moment this pageant made its appearance, the harper struck up a flourish; at the conclusion of which the young Oxonian, on receiving a hint from the Squire, gave, with an air of the most comic gravity, an old carol, the first verse of which was as follows:

'Caput apri defero
Reddens laudes Domino.
The boar's head in hand bring I,
With garlands gay and rosemary.
I pray you all synge merily,
Qui estis in convivio.

Though prepared to witness many of these little excentricities, from being apprized of the peculiar hobby of mine host, yet, I confess, the parade with which so odd a dish was introduced somewhat perplexed me, until I gathered from the conversation of the Squire and the parson, that it was meant to represent the bringing in of the boar's head; a dish formerly served up with much ceremony and the sound of minstrelsy and song, at great tables, on Christmas day. "I like the old custom," said the Squire, "not merely because it is stately and pleasing in itself, but because it was observed at the college at Oxford, at which I was educated. When I hear the old song chanted, it brings to mind the time when I was young and gamesome — and the noble old college-hall — and my fellow-students loitering about it in their black gowns; many of whom, poor lads, are now in their graves!"'

We

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We remember, some century ago, or thereabouts, to have gone in a hackney-coach to Westminster Abbey, with our old friend Sir Roger de Coverley, and to have been extremely pleased with the quaintness and simplicity of his remarks. The worthy Knight, it is true, made a point of never going abroad without drinking a glass of the widow Truby's strong water; and he pressed us with such affectionate earnestness to take a dram, that possibly we might be in a particularly good humour at the time: be that as it may, we have not enjoyed our present visit to the tombs, in the company of Mr. Irving, although he was more sentimentally inclined, with altogether so much zest as we felt on the former occasion. Having also been present at the Boar's Head tavern in East Cheap, when another lamented friend of ours, poor Oliver Goldsmith, talked in his sleep with the ghost of Dame Quickly; in the very room where old Jack Falstaff used to crack his jokes, and in the very chair in which Prince Hal used to sit with his merry companions about him; it is not surprizing that we should have lost something of the relish which a visit to East Cheap, with so inquisitive and agreeable an associate as Mr. Irving, would otherwise have afforded us.

This writer is probably a young man, and in that case his enthusiasm should excite our envy rather than our censure; otherwise, we should say that he is a little too romantic, and that he festoons his descriptions somewhat gaudily with epithets and apostrophes.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR OCTOBER, 1820.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 13. *Sacred Leisure;* or, Poems on Religious Subjects. By the Rev. Francis Hodgson, A.M., Vicar of Bakewell, Author of "The Friends," a Poem, &c. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Taylor and Hessey. 1820.

We have more than once introduced Mr. Hodgson's productions to the notice of our readers, and have found reason to applaud his moral principles, his good taste, and his strength of poetic language, particularly when applied to the purposes of satire. He has now devoted some of his 'leisure' to a subject on which also we have frequently given our opinion; and we are sure that he will concur with us in the sentiments which we have occasionally expressed,

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expressed, respecting the difficulty of treating unexceptionably, and successfully, religious topics in the diction of the Muses.

Poetry, unless bursting with the inspiration of Milton, can indeed rarely impart additional energy or vivacity to the impressions made on us by these subjects in our early youth. The very phrases, in which they were first familiarized to our understanding, become hallowed in our recollections; and any attempt to re-model the Bible, or to parcel out its contents into a series of poetic tales, seems to the imagination as futile as it would be to retouch the tints of nature, or to bedizen the majestic simplicity of truth. When, therefore, we read the two longer poems in this small volume, intitled 'Cain and Abel,' and 'Jonah,' as also those of the shorter pieces which relate directly to the doctrines or to the history of the Christian Revelation, we could not repress a sentiment of sincere regret that Mr. Hodgson should have hazarded his reputation in so difficult and almost impracticable a task. The introduction to the tale of Jonah, however, is certainly conceived in a happy manner, and we shall present it to the reader.

'*Advertisement.*

'The miraculous history of Jonah, when related in English verse, seemed to require both an introduction and a conclusion of some kind or another. The most natural plan which occurred to the present writer, was to put the relation into the mouth of a Christian of the fourth century; who is supposed to have retired for religious purposes, common at that period, to the deserts near Antioch. Upon hearing the distant sound of that tremendous earthquake which threatened to destroy the city, and which called forth so divine a specimen of eloquence from St. Chrysostom (who witnessed it), the recluse is imagined to address the speech which forms the main subject of the poem to his son, the companion of his holy retirement.

'" Kneel, kneel, my child, to him the Lord of Heaven,
Secret in judgment, sudden to destroy!
To Him, whose unheard voice awakes the storm
That rocks e'en now our trembling Syrian earth,
And bids old Antioch in her pride turn pale.
Yes, to these desert woods her cry has reached,
The cry of startled guilt—Ye hapless towers!
Oh that, like mightier Nineveh, forewarned
By that prophetic Hebrew, and reclaimed
From Ruin's yawning gulph, ye too had heard
Some wrathful Jonah—or would hear your own,
Your saintly pastor—lost, adulterous city!
What sign shall rescue thee!—when viewless, swift,
As the dread hour of everlasting trial,
Shaking thy walls to their deep-rooted base,
Speaks thy dark doom in thunder from the ground,
Kneel, kneel, my child, to Him the Lord of Heaven,
Secret in judgment, sudden to destroy!"

'Thus

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'Thus in their lonely cave, where arching rose
The hills of Silence, and a night of woods,
The holy Theon to the much-lov'd youth
Who shar'd his hermit hours, and now was all
Earth held of comfort for a widow'd sire,
Closing their guileless prayers, in terror spoke.

'Now, hushed awhile, the distant earthquake died
In aweful murmurings, and from forth the cell,
Gazing intent upon the unclouded arch
Of breathless blue, through whose deep bosom sailed
Pure in her virgin loveliness the light
Of silent nature, looked that lowly pair,
With eyes, how eloquent, of grateful peace,
And heavenly love, more warm from peril past.

'But youthful Cyril, in his wondering mind
Who deeply treasured all a parent's words,
And gradual now, as cautious wisdom chose,
Inspired and guided by paternal love,
With eager lips the hallowed fountains drank
That flowed from Sion's hill, the immortal lore
Of sages taught by Heaven, of Heaven itself,
Mused much of threatened Antioch, much of Him
Whose warning voice preserved the great of old,
The guilty Nineveh — "And say, my Sire,
Since yet untold that high prophetic tale,
How 'scaped Assyria's Queen the lifted bolt
Of reddening anger? — Who was He that stood
Between her God and her, and stayed the plague?"

'"Mercy, my child," the well-pleased Sire returned,
"Unbought, unasked by man, too vast for him,
And his restrained compassion, or hot wrath
Raised by his brother worm, Heaven's mercy spared
The ripe, the ready prey. But thou shalt hear
That deep, mysterious tale, consigned to awe
Unspeakable by Him, the Son of God,
Its own Almighty Antitype, who gave
This sign, and only this, to warn the race,
The unbelieving race, who sought for wonders."'

Among the smaller poems, are some few devoted to subjects more suitable, we think, to Mr. Hodgson's poetical talents. Such are the following lines on the Beauty of the Creation, in which we seem to recognize Mr. H.'s natural style:

'Had the rich earth been only made
Her creatures' various wants to aid;
Had Heaven so framed the whole,
That one wide, flat, unshaded plain,
Self-warmed, and self-bedewed with rain,
Had fed each living soul:

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'Due still our grateful praise would be,
Almighty Architect, to thee,
For nature's bounteous plan:
But, oh! what raptures of delight
Creation's fair embellished sight
Calls forth from wondering man!

'What superfluity of love
Descends in beauty from above!
What harmony around
Attunes the breathing earth and sky,
And swells, in murmuring majesty,
Through all the blue profound!

'How colour pours upon the scene
Her altering shades of sunny green!
How the grey rocks on high,
Streaked by the cataract's wintry course,
Or shattered by the thunder's force,
In gathering darkness lie!

'Yon softer hill, beneath the rock,
Half-covered by the whitening flock
That roams its verdant side,
With seeming exultation sees
The natural diadem of trees
Run round it, deep and wide.

'And oh! that sweet uprising shower,
Balm breathed from herb, and fruit, and flower!
When, bright with April dew,
The landscape gleams, and arched above
The pictured pledge of heavenly love
Spans the whole vernal view.

'Who here can lose, with blinded sense,
The beam of pure benevolence?
To raise the human heart
To HIM who framed this balanced globe,
'Twas girded with so fair a robe,
'Twas graced with matchless art.

'That hand of heavenly art is here,
Where, down the winding vale, appear
The roofs of rustic straw;
And spiral wreaths of airy blue
Mount from the peaceful cottage, true
To beauty's native law.

'That hand of heavenly art bestows
The mingled light, the life that flows,
Where nature's fountains play;
When the morn wakes their misty stream,
Or evening's yellow lustres gleam
Along their fading way.

'That

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'That hand of heavenly art is seen
Brightest in virtue's eye serene,
Where truth and fondness dwell —
What angel mind can picture thee,
Thou vision of tranquillity?
What tongue presume to tell?'

Art. 14. *What have we got?* or, All our Glories; a Poetico-political Morceau. Fragment I. By *—— *——*. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ilbery. 1820.

A whimsical preface, informing the reader of the mode in which, it is pretended, the MS. of this poem came into the editor's hands, prepares us for the character of the composition which follows. The author is somewhat of a *grumbler* as to the nature of our political blessings, of which he makes out a list in answer to his own question, '*What have we got?*'; and many persons may deem him *a bit of a radical* in his mode of viewing them, and in his estimate of the characters of some of the great folks of the country. His verse is of the half Hudibrastic, half Macaronic, half Pun-ic *, sort that has lately been in fashion; as witness the following stanzas:

'A *Sinking Fund* we have; — some think it real
Because the *funds* are sinking every day;
Some think it visionary and ideal,
Since they have lopt nine-tenths of it away;
In one thing it is plain that we agree all,
New debts we make — the old we never pay.
This our *tutamen, decus*, and *Palladium*
Exit, like all our other schemes in *um*.' —

'I like not these restrictions every day:
One looks so like a ministerial tool,
When to discover what to think or say,
Like C———g, one must trot to *Liverpool*,
Or asking counsel of Lord C———h,
Run greater risk of looking like a fool.
Tho' the advice of neither's worth a groat,
It seems they cannot be too dearly bought.

'Yet down our throats it must be cramm'd en —
—tirely against the sense of meetings held on
Our wrongs and sufferings: Oh! illustrious Camden,
Which prompted thee to that which was so well done,
I doubt if 'twould be paralleled by Hampden,
And certainly it never will by Eldon;
Our Bathursts, Addingtons, our Grenvilles, Ardens —
Our judges, counsellors, or Cinque Port wardens.

* We hope that our readers will forgive our *three halves*.

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'Ye duller stars! diminished digni—*ties*
Ye knights grand crosses, and ye knights of Pat;—
Ye P—ls, ye P—les, ye P—lets, H—rr——bies—
All ye on fees of office who grow fat,
Sly Ari—stoc—*rats*, nibblers of the cheese
—parings—Hide, hide your heads, and think of—Pratt!
No not a name among ye rhymes to *that*:—
And this 'midst all your *bills* the only *Act*
Approved by any but yourselves in fact.

'Come, gentlemen, and take a leaf out of his book,
Camden's Britan. *black letter*. No, that's not him,
'Tis for a *fairer character* you look,
Britannia's Camden. Take care not to blot him:
That's your right paper credit—get by book
Or crook—and keep him when you've got him.
Many black points in your administration,
This the sole *point* (alas!) *of Admiration!!*'

Her late Majesty is then canonized; and next the recent endeavours of the male branches of our royal family to preserve the line of succession to the crown are ludicrously eulogized.—We could quote farther: but it is right to be moderate, whether the dish before us be "good, bad, or indifferent;" and the writer of this poem has some title to all those epithets. He is by no means one of the lowest of the multitude of makers of verses; but, as we said before, he is somewhat of a grumbler; and, if others grumble at him, he must not complain. "*Hanc veniam petimus*," &c.

Art. 15. *Aguilhar*, a Tragedy. By H. Madison Tweddell. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Allman. 1820.

It is with tenderness and respect that we wish to treat every thing which bears the name of Tweddell. If the house of Pindar was spared at Thebes, the *house* of Tweddell should be honoured at Athens. We mean, that all lovers of literature must feel disposed to welcome any learned effort from a relation of that distinguished scholar, who, among the numerous examples of united diligence and genius afforded in late years by the students of our universities, still stands pre-eminent in fame. Yet, alas! what can we do? How can we dispense with our stern and unwelcome duty of criticism?

This tragedy, then, with regret we say, has no one element of dramatic poetry. It has neither an ingenious and well-managed story, nor characters strongly contrasted and happily sustained; nor is it conveyed in language elegant, forcible, and appropriate. It is an unfortunate imitation of the worst familiarity, and *vulgarity* even, of the old Elizabethan drama; that fatal rock on which the *pigmy mimics* of our day are for ever splitting. We should be sorry to be supposed, for a moment, guilty of including Mr. Tweddell in this class of *Lilliputian imitators*; for we believe him, from many indications scattered throughout the work, to be capable of much better things;—but these are not *poeti-*

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cal things; and, therefore, from such studies we venture to warn him for ever. We shall not give ourselves and others the pain of quotation, but rest the censure on our character.

Art. 16. *Patronage*; a Poem. In imitation of the Seventh Satire of Juvenal. By Mandanis. 12mo. pp. 38. Souter. 1820.

Considerable merit, poetical and ethical, is displayed in the present little poem: but we cannot suffer such extreme virulence of abuse as it also contains to pass without censure. We refer, particularly, to pages 14. and 15., but certainly we shall not any farther add to the notoriety of such very malignant matter.

Let our readers judge of the manner in which other characters are treated, in this *spit-fire* performance:

> 'E'en Scott, who cooks a leash of larks at thrice,
> And Eldon, flagrant of Sir William's vice,
> For (like the sinning sisters in the play,
> 'Tis "Brother, brother, brother, ev'ry way")
> E'en these, who scorn fatigue, and time, and health,
> For wealth; — already infamous for wealth;
> Who with starv'd limbs, and death enwhiten'd locks,
> Still add to mortgage, mortgage; stocks to stocks:
> E'en these, who sicken if their purses gape
> Just wide enough to let a groat escape;
> These, who dare suffer (what do misers dread?)
> The wise and good to die for want of bread;
> E'en these will praise you.' —

This, in our judgment, is very gross, so gross as to frustrate its own object; and by exciting the virtuous resentment of honest men, against the overcharged censure of failings, or even vices, all satire is rendered suspicious, and will not endanger the safety of real delinquency.

Art. 17. *Retribution*; a Poem: addressed to Woman. By Charles Swan, Author of "Omar," an Eastern Tale, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 71. Chapple. 1820.

All those parts of this volume which are not glaringly absurd, or offensive, we conceive to have no meaning at all.

> 'A bowl they deemed her, a full-flowing bowl
> Made but for jolly topers.'
>
> A whale they deemed him, a large oily whale,
> Made for superb harpooners!

The former of these allusions belongs to Mr. Charles Swan, and is applied to a woman. The latter is our own, and has reference to a man. *Utrum horum?*

> 'See'st thou yon cottage — breathing like a bride?'

If this be not nonsense, we despair even in the present age of discovering it.

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Out of the 'Poems' which the author has modestly declined to announce in the title-page, we select the following happy passage:

'The soul that fondly treasures there
Undying love, for one too fair,
Too heavenly — and perchance too *haught* —
Though fallen every high-raised thought —
Though faded fancy's Paradise,
Like guiding stars to seaman's eyes: —
Still owns that warm unhappy breast,
A rapture cold hearts cannot own:
For while he loved with hope — it blessed —
And, vanished, stayed a deeper groan.'

We have only to call the attention of our reader to the inimitable line,

'Too heavenly — and perchance too *haught*,'

and then to leave them in the hands of Mr. Swan. We hope that these are *expiring strains*.

Art. 18. *Moscow;* a Tragedy, in Five Acts, founded on recent Historical Events. As performed at the Theatre, Taunton. By the Reverend A. Cresswell, A.B. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Baldwin and Co. 1820.

The subject and events of this tragedy are rather too recent in "the mouths and minds of men," to become fairly the property of the poet. We should doubt how they might succeed even under the controul of real genius: but, in the hands of mediocrity, their chance is necessarily much worse. The tale is of itself a tragedy of yesterday, and requires nothing from the embellishment of poetry to add force and terror to the scenes. To the dramatist of distant years, and to a refined Russian audience, it may present charms of a truly national and interesting nature.

Mr. Cresswell's drama is certainly rather historical than poetical, as he himself intimates. For an explanation of the plot, character, and incidents, we may therefore refer to the public journals of the day. The progress of the piece is seldom interrupted by any flashes of poetic fire, or bold sketches of character, which might have given life to its historical correctness; and the apparition of the Red Man, and the under-plot of Le Grand and Paulowna, are scarcely sufficient to atone for the regular campaign-like proceedings of the other heroes of the story.

The author has apparently laboured under too great political delicacy in the portraiture of his *illustrious personages:* he has endeavoured not to give offence to any; and he has consequently made them all equally harmless and tame.

As a specimen of the supernatural powers of the Red Man, we shall extract scene 3., act iv.

'*Bonaparte, in the advanced line of the French army at bivouac, is discovered reading in his tent. Enter an apparition, or evil spirit, very tall, in red armour.*

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'*Bona.* Ha! bold intruder, dost thou come again?
This is thy second visit. Hellish fiend,
Avaunt! — or thus I'll punish thy presumption!
[*Draws his sword.*]
'*Spirit.* Put up thy harmless weapon, — why stab the air?
Thy utmost spite cannot affect me, Prince! —
'Tis useless thus to rage, to fret, or frown;
For frowns will not avail thee now.
'*Bona.* Spirit,
That thus appear'st in such a flaming shape,
Whence proceedest thou? — from heaven or hell? —
Speak, thou fiery demon! tell thy mission!
'*Spirit.* 'Tis not for me to say from whence I come;
This, Napoleon, shalt thou know hereafter:
But learn, proud Prince, I am familiar
With thy most secret thoughts.
'*Bona.* Thou liest, base fiend! —
Thy loathed presence once did torture me;
And only once before; and dost thou dare
Assert thou hast my confidence?
'*Spirit.* Napoleon,
But once again thou'lt view me here on earth;
But thrice my hated vision can appear
To mortal ken: but though invisible,
Great Prince, I am thy close companion.
'*Bona.* Speak; on what occasions hast thou been near me!
Say what my secret thoughts when thou intrudest,
Tell what business next in hand?' &c. &c.

Art. 19. *Zayda;* a Spanish Tale, in Three Cantos; and other Poems, Stanzas, and Canzonets. By Oscar. 18mo. 5*s.* Boards. Whittakers. 1820.

If this little volume possesses any merit, it is of a very equivocal kind. The son of Ossian informs us that 'few perhaps have had less excuse to offer, for intruding upon the notice of the public the effusions of a few leisure hours, than the author of the subsequent pages: who, *at a period, than in which* the display and competition of yet living and productive poetic genius never before so justly and so exclusively commanded the interest and admiration of the world, has ventured to open for the inspection of the general reader his little volume, which, like an early secluded flower, is most haply destined to remain unnoticed, and to feel the cold gaze of indifference eclipsed by the charms of maturer plants, or to fade beneath the more chilly blight of contempt, by being contrasted with the surrounding beauties; beauties that grow more beautiful the oftener they are observed, and whose perfume leaves a charm on the senses which no after-time can ever efface!' Though this long-winded ungrammatical sentence does not form an integral portion of the poems, its nature is highly poetical, and, by its resemblance to the style of Ossian, discovers that kindred genius for which we should have been at a loss to account from the mere mention of genealogy!

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" *Simili frondescit virga metallo.*"

Some of the least incorrect of these poems are of a light and erotic cast: but the Spanish story of Zayda is too inflated, irregular, and over-wrought, both in sentiment and expression, to be considered as a favourable specimen of the author's powers. The following portion of it gives perhaps some of its best lines:

' The thought of years already fled,
Of pleasures and of sorrows past,
Of friends that were, but now are dead,
Of joys that are, but cannot last,
Of scenes that charmed, but soon stole by,
Of hopes that soothed, but told not why:
Broke on her silence with a sigh:
Fears for the future, too, then stole
O'er the soft slumber of her soul,
And though a joy, like glad-hope stealing,
Had mingled expectation's smart,—
But those are tinctured more by feeling,
From which remembrance cannot part.' P. 9.

The character and incidents of the poem of Zayda, however, are too trite and common-place to allow us to dwell on them; and we can speak of the miscellaneous pieces with more approbation: for in these at least the writer manifests a ray of taste and feeling.

' STANZAS TO ———

' " *Piaga per allentar d'arco non sana.*" — Petrarch.

' They tell me that thy youthful cheek,
And late so lively soft dark eye,
Are changed, — and often seem to speak
The language of a sympathy;—
They say thou look'st no longer glad!
But thoughtful oft appear'st to be;
And that the thought which makes thee sad,
They ween, is, ah!— a thought of me!

' Though selfish; 'tis a kind relief,—
Such secret solace life can gladden,
To know, like mine, a mutual grief
Thy softer heart does also sadden,' &c. &c.

POLITICS.

Art. 20. *Refert Gentis:* A Short Tract. 8vo. 6d. Richardson.

The object of this tract seems to be to suggest means for augmenting the finances of the state, and for improving the condition of the poor. For the first purpose, the author recommends a contribution of 10 per cent. on capital; for the second, a restriction in the supply of parochial relief, and a tax on a graduated scale

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scale on all marriages: which, he says, 'shall form a fund for the poor, half the interest of which shall be applicable in aid of the poor-rates, and the remaining half shall be added to the sacred fund.' The author justly observes, that 'it is very probable that every idea in these pages may have been already given to the public:' but he adds, with somewhat of an Iricism, that 'this short statement is intended for those who have not leisure for [*much*] reading.'

TRAVELS.

Art. 21. *The Traveller's Fire-side*, a Series of Papers on Switzerland, the Alps, &c.; containing Information and Descriptions, original, and selected from French and Swiss Authors. By Samuel Miller Waring. Small 8vo. pp. 309. 5s. 6d. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

This little volume is ushered in by a sprightly preface, describing the writer as a young man and a young traveller. Passing over the so often trodden ground of Calais, Paris, and Lyons, he introduces his reader at once to the ridges of Jura and the glaciers that surround Mont Blanc: when several letters are appropriated to excursions in the neighbourhood of Chamouni, and to a description of the chamois, the eagle, and other wild animals of the Alps. Mr. W. then proceeds into the interior of Switzerland, and gives an account of towns and districts less frequently depicted in books of travels;—we mean, parts of the cantons of Berne, Friburg, and Schwitz, a sequestered region, the cradle of Helvetian liberty. Returning from these rugged tracts to the more genial atmosphere of the Pays de Vaud, he describes the northern and southern shores of the lake of Geneva, the canton of the Valais, the passage of the Simplon, and finally the road into Lombardy as far as Milan.

The latter part of the volume is not the production of Mr. W., but a translation of a 'series of letters on the road from Geneva to Milan by the Simplon,' written in 1808, in French, by an author of the name of Mallet. In other parts of his book, Mr. W. has borrowed very freely from foreign writers, particularly Ramond and Ebel; and the merit of his work consists less in general views than in the clearness of its local descriptions, and in its delineation of Alpine manners. We do not object to this liberal borrowing from others, while Mr. W. makes a point of acknowleging such obligations: but the youth of the author leads him occasionally into enumerations (as in p. 140.) of particulars which appear puerile to veterans either in travelling or in reviewing. He appears to possess some knowlege of German; an attainment of no slight importance in a country in which the names of places are derived from that language, and in general are expressive of some peculiarity of position.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 22. *Some Remarks on Lord John Russel's Life of William Lord Russell*, and on the Times in which he lived. By Spencer Johnson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 59. Mawman. 1820.

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We are told that the author of these pages has enjoyed the honour of a personal acquaintance with the noble biographer of Lord Russell from his earliest days, and therefore must naturally take a more than ordinary interest in any production of his pen. He consequently perused the work just mentioned with critical attention; and, for the satisfaction of his own mind, he examined the historians of that stormy period in which Lord Russell lived, in order to compare their accounts of the transactions in which he was engaged with the relation given by his descendant. The result is an entire verification of Lord John's narrative; and it receives the sincere and animated eulogy to which it is intitled. After the full account which we gave of that production, (vol. xci. p. 225.) we shall not re-enter on the subject: but it would be unjust to the author of these Remarks if we withheld the expression of our entire concurrence with the constitutional views which he has taken, and our approbation of the manly spirit which he displays. Lord John Russel is an actor in, as well as a spectator of, the interesting events daily passing before us; and we can ill spare even the temporary suspension of his exertions: but, if he could find leisure to prepare for the public a history of the house of Russell, we should heartily second the suggestion here thrown out for his undertaking it.

The name of Johnson, given as that of the writer of this pamphlet, we understand to be fictitious.

Art. 23. *Gioachino Greco on the Game of Chess:* translated from the French. To which are added, numerous Remarks, critical and explanatory, by William Lewis, Author and Editor of several Works on Chess. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

Gioachino Greco was a native of Calabria, of low extraction but of handsome person. By what accident he became fond of chess is now unknown: but this fondness gained for him the protection and friendship of the celebrated Don Mariano Marano, an excellent player, who took the boy to his house, and soon taught him the more difficult stratagems of the game. When he left the roof of Marano, *the Greek,* as he was emphatically called, travelled as a kind of prize-fighter on the chess-board, visited the principal courts of Europe, and at Paris beat the Duke of Nemours, whose defeat was recorded in a madrigal. He printed a book on chess at Naples, which was afterward translated into French, and republished at Paris in 1669. From this French edition, reprinted at London in 1752, the volume before us is derived: but it is rather a new-modelling than a mere translation; games with similar openings having here been classed together, and many of Greco's catastrophes reduced to mere variations. Critical notes are attached to the successive pages, which abundantly prove that Greco was not completely armed at all points for purposes either of attack or of defence, but that he frequently suggests ruinous movements. Whether it was worth while to republish a syllabus of instructions, which have been long superseded by

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by the profounder science of Philidor, may be questioned; and surely it was inexpedient to retain the unwieldy form of hieroglyphic notation here adopted, now that Moses Hirschel has devised a neater stenography of chess. On these subjects, we have already spoken at length in our account of Sarratt's work. (Rev. vol. lxxii. p. 351.) Greco died in the East Indies at an advanced age, having found his skill at chess a sufficient passport throughout the world.

The French have a good book on chess, intitled *Traité Theorique et Pratique du Jeu des Echecs*, printed at Paris in 1775: its author's name is unknown to us, but we deem it more worthy of translation than this treatise of Greco. Some problems are commonly attached to grammars of chess, which serve to amuse the learner, but are unnoticed here: such as to begin at any given square, to move the knight into every square of the board without twice visiting the same square, and to finish in any given square. In the Transactions of the Academy of Berlin, Euler has inserted a mathematical solution of this problem.

Art. 24. *Chess rendered Familiar by tabular Demonstrations of the various Positions and Movements*, as described by Philidor: with many other critical Situations and Moves, and a concise Introduction to the Game. By J. G. Pohlman. Royal 8vo. pp. 449. 1l. 1s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

This handsome but somewhat ponderous volume is in fact an explanatory comment on Philidor's Treatise on Chess. Philidor wrote for proficients in the game, and has recorded critical situations and difficult processes with stenographic brevity. His commentator, on the contrary, has exhibited in spacious tabular demonstrations, or progressive representations of the succeeding phases, the instructions of the master. Thus, that which the learner would have to find or make out from the original work, at the expence of much time and pains, is here already done to his eye, or, as we might say, to his hand. To play from the book is often a source of solitary amusement, and inures the young student to foresee consequences, to struggle with difficulties, and to extricate himself from embarrassment; and this is not an idle labour. Chess, above all other games, has cosmopolitical rank; and he who excels in it secures a ready introduction to genteel company, not merely in London, Paris, and Vienna, but at Constantinople, at Benares, and at Pekin.

An introduction of thirty-six pages treats of the rules of the game, and advances many precepts or general instructions for the conduct of it. Then follow wood-cuts, which occupy four hundred pages, and represent in progress the more remarkable games of Philidor. The first game is illustrated by representations after every single move; and other games are noted with greater abbreviation, in proportion as the pupil learns to supply the inevitable intermediate steps. Some games are given without variations, but others with two, three, and even five variations. Nine entire games are thus chronicled. Then follows an ingenious collection of

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of difficult mates and ends of game. Salvio's gambit, the Cunningham gambit, the Aleppo gambit, and many other niceties, are explained in fourteen separate lessons. The work concludes with some critical situations and moves from Stamma, and with Philidor's notes on particular moves.

The author supposes his exchequer to be numbered, and directs the placing of the pieces accordingly on square No. 1. or square No. 64. Surely it would answer to the makers of chess-boards to provide numbered boards for sale, which would much facilitate the playing by the book.

As mentioned in the preceding article, we took a former occasion (vol. lxxii. p. 351.) of entering at large into the history and antiquities of this elegant though abstruse pastime: but enough

> "Of armies in the chequer'd field array'd,
> And guiltless war in pleasing form display'd,
> When two tall kings contend with vain alarms,
> In ivory this, and that in ebon arms."

Let us now attend to "a *lifeless* leader in this *bloodless* field."

Art. 25. *Observations on the Automaton Chess Player, now exhibited in London, at No. 4. Spring Gardens. By an Oxford Graduate.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

These observations are well adapted to excite public curiosity about the extraordinary Automaton Chess Player. According to the account here given,

'The room where it is at present exhibited has an inner apartment, within which appears the figure of a Turk, as large as life, dressed after the Turkish fashion, sitting behind a chest of three feet and a half in length, two feet in breadth, and two feet and a half in height, to which it is attached by the wooden seat on which it sits. The chest is placed upon four casters, and, together with the figure, may be easily moved to any part of the room. On the plain surface formed by the top of the chest, in the centre, is a raised immoveable chess-board of handsome dimensions, upon which the figure has its eyes fixed; its right arm and hand being extended on the chest, and its left arm somewhat raised, as if in the attitude of holding a Turkish pipe, which originally was placed in its hand.

'The exhibiter begins by wheeling the chest to the entrance of the apartment within which it stands, and in face of the spectators. He then opens certain doors contrived in the chest, two in front, and two at the back, at the same time pulling out a long shallow drawer at the bottom of the chest made to contain the chess men, a cushion for the arm of the figure to rest upon, and some counters. Two lesser doors, and a green cloth screen, contrived in the body of the figure, and in its lower parts, are likewise opened, and the Turkish robe which covers them is raised; so that the construction both of the figure and chest internally is displayed. In this state the Automaton is moved round for the examination of the spectators; and to banish all suspicion from the most scep-

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sceptical mind, that any living subject is concealed within any part of it, the exhibiter introduces a lighted candle into the body of the chest and figure, by which the interior of each is, in a great measure, rendered transparent, and the most secret corner is shown. Here it may be observed, that the same precaution to remove suspicion is used, if requested, at the close as at the commencement of a game of chess with the Automaton.

'The chest is divided, by a partition, into two unequal chambers. That to the right of the figure is the narrowest, and occupies scarcely one third of the body of the chest. It is filled with little wheels, levers, cylinders, and other machinery used in clock-work. That to the left contains a few wheels, some small barrels with springs, and two quarters of a circle placed horizontally. The body and lower parts of the figure contain certain tubes which seem to be conductors to the machinery. After a sufficient time, during which each spectator may satisfy his scruples and his curiosity, the exhibiter recloses the doors of the chest and figure, and the drawer at bottom; makes some arrangements in the body of the figure, winds up the works with a key inserted into a small opening on the side of the chest, places a cushion under the left arm of the figure, which now rests upon it, and invites any individual present to play a game of chess.

'At one and three o'clock in the afternoon, the Automaton plays only ends of games, with any person who may be present. On these occasions the pieces are placed on the board, according to a preconcerted arrangement; and the Automaton invariably wins the game. But at eight o'clock every evening, it plays an entire game against any antagonist who may offer himself, and generally is the winner, although the inventor had not this issue in view as a necessary event.'

That the movements of the figure are in fact directed by a living agent, who inspects the game, can scarcely be doubted, although the method of inserting his volitions has escaped general observation.

Art. 26. *The Flowers of Rhetoric, the Graces of Eloquence, and the Charms of Oratory;* depicted by Men celebrated for their Taste, Genius, Diction, and Erudition. Assorted and exhibited by the Rev. Ralph Sharp, D.D. Crown 8vo. 9s. Boards. Fearman. 1819.

In this little book, Dr. Sharp attempts to revive and to explain a great number of hard words which were formerly employed by teachers of rhetoric; presenting chapters intitled after the figures, *Acyrologia, Adynaton, Anadiplosis, Anaphora, Antanaclasis, Anthrorismus, Antimetabole, Antismus, Apobaterion, Apodioxis, Aposiopesis, Asyndeton,* &c. to say nothing of those of which the names begin with secondary or subsequent letters of the alphabet. Under each of these heads, passages are given from celebrated writers, which exhibit the form of expression designated by the strange word. We transcribe a page or two.

'THE

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'THE ANTISMUS.

'*A mechanical Dalliance with Words.*

'1st, *By a Prosthesis to an after-word, antecedently used.*

'Some errors cause *t*errors.

'All wrongs have mends, but no *a*mends of shame.

'This tempted our *at*tempt.

'Rage always *en*rages.

'Can you expect me to take gently, what *un*gently comes?

'Some are wise, and some are *other*wise.

'How it galls Honor, to be under obligations to a man of *dis*honor!

'2dly, *By a Paragoge to an after-word, antecedently used.*

'Forgive, and ye shall be forgiv*en*.

'Knowledge is the treasure, Judgment the treasurer, of a wise man.

'When the law is special, and the reason of it general, it is to be general*ly* understood.

'Her broad face grew broad*er* with triumph.

'Give us this day our dai*ly* bread.

'Under the name of reason, all reason*able* ideas are often insulted.

'Some men never love, till they are not worth lov*ing*.

'Between the terms act and act*ion*, there is a subtle distinction.

'Righteousness is immortal, and will immortal*ize* the entertainers of it.

'Marvel not at that which is so little marvel*ous*.

'Though a man of sense, he made a sense*less* reply.

'The weak may be joked out of any thing but their weak*ness*.

'Run tap, run tap*ster*.

'No place is too public for the public*ation* of an injury.

'3dly, *The Omission of the Prosthesis on the after-word.*

'Very rarely is *t*reason guided by reason.

'*Pl*acidus was called Acidus, because of his sour temper.

'This is no *s*tumbling, but plain tumbling.

'They set their *en*signs for signs.

'The most fatiguing *un*politeness, is that which proceeds from an excess of politeness.

'When we feel too much attachment to this world, let us reflect on the *un*certainty of life, and the certainty of death.

'In the *re*proof of chance
Lies the true proof of men.

Troilus and Cress. Act i.

'I'd fain praise your poem — but tell me, how is it,
When *I* cry out "*Ex*quisite!" *Echo* cries, "quiz it?"'

Those who wish for such explanations and exemplifications of exotic and pedantic terms may here find a curious assemblage both of definitions and quotations, which often amuse by their quaint-

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quaintness, and sometimes instruct by their singularity. The entire collection may be compared to a piece of Mosaic work, of which the design is awkward and old-fashioned, but the materials are precious stones.

Art. 27. *Zoophilos;* or, Considerations on the moral Treatment of inferior Animals. By Henry Crowe, M.A., late Fellow of Clare-Hall, Cambridge, and Vicar of Buckingham. 8vo. 3s 6d. sewed. Seeley, &c.

Though we do not coincide entirely with this author in his absolute interdiction of all the usual rural sports, we have no hesitation in recommending this small treatise to the serious attention of our readers, as abounding with humane sentiments and considerate reflections. In the chapter which Mr. Crowe devotes to the subject of cruelty in philosophical researches, we think that he carries his principles of tenderness to an extent which might materially obstruct advancement in science. An intimate acquaintance with pathology tends to diminish human sufferings by facilitating modes of cure: the sciences of physiology and comparative anatomy, as far as they are subsidiary to this purpose, are grand acquisitions to humanity; and experiments, which give pain to inferior animals, but which eventually enable us to save pain in human beings, are not to be involved in the same sentence of reprehension which we pronounce on the flaying of eels and the refinements of fly-fishing.

Art. 28. *A Fragment of the History of John Bull;* with the Birth, Parentage, Education, and Humours of Jack Radical: with incidental Remarks upon Ancient and Modern Radicalism. By Horace Hombergh, Esq. of the Middle Temple. 8vo. pp. 184. Wilkie. 1820.

The sprightliness of this tract is considerable, but not nearly sufficient to redeem its gross scurrility and virulence. We admire as little as the author many of the tenets which he intends to ridicule: but the extravagances of ignorance and folly, though they may be more contemptible, are not more the objects of our aversion than illiberality and malignity.

Art. 29. *Memorabilia;* or Recollections, Historical, Biographical, and Antiquarian. By James Savage. 8vo. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1820.

As far as compiling industry and persevering research among the works of literature and art are deserving of a niche in the *Biographia curiosa* of our country, we think that the present volume has some claim to our attention. Without any extraordinary exertion of intellectual powers, or penetration into the deep and hidden secrets of antient lore, the author has contrived to render his pages amusing, if not learned and instructive: while his information respecting the celebrated characters of our own country, and curious portions of our history, is gathered from a variety of sources, and bespeaks a somewhat extensive scale of reading. Many of his materials, however, appear to be borrowed from

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from former writers, or even compilers from older historians; and his authorities are frequently acknowleged by the insertion of marginal notes. He does not aspire to the merit of unfolding to us any thing new, or reviving obsolete knowlege, but he has represented many points of history in a novel point of view, and has illustrated several facts which, in the course of study, have come under his attention.

The plan of the work is rather too desultory and unconnected to engage the notice of the experienced historian, or the confirmed antiquary: but, as an object of amusement for a leisure-hour, or for the perusal of younger minds, it may be considered as an acceptable collection of biographical and historical miscellanea.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 30. *A Discourse on the Duty and Advantages of early rising:* peculiarly adapted to the Commencement of a New Year. 8vo. 1s. Spencer.

This discourse, founded on the text, "O God! thou art my God; early will I seek thee," (Psalm lxiii. v. 1.) manifests much good sense, and is expressed in a plain and simple manner. The advice suggested in it is urged with a seriousness and earnestness of address which are well calculated to convince the understanding, and to influence the conduct of an audience. The principal passages in Scripture, inforcing or illustrating the duty of early rising, are very aptly introduced; and the composition displays throughout the eloquence of sincerity, and of a mind impressed with the importance of the subject.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We had proposed to insert an answer to the polite inquiry of *T. H.*: but, on farther consideration, we wish to decline an argument on the case with him in this part of our work; and all *private* controversy of this kind is wholly extra-official with us. We have thrown out the suggestion to which *T. H.* alludes, and for the discussion of the learned we prefer there to leave it for the present.

It is not our intention to overlook the publication relative to the instruction of the infant Deaf and Dumb.

It would be quite foreign from our duty to comply with the solicitation of *R. Z.*

*** Subscribers to the GENERAL INDEX to the New Series of the Monthly Review, and all possessors of setts of that portion of the work, are requested to apply speedily for copies of so necessary a key to this multifarious record of literature, without which their setts will not be complete; a very limited number of the Index having been printed.

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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1820.

ART. I. *An Account of the Arctic Regions*, with a History and Description of the Northern Whale-Fishery. By W. Scoresby, junior, F.R.S.E. Illustrated by Twenty-four Engravings. 2 Vols. 8vo. Upwards of 600 Pages in each. 21. 2s. Boards. Constable and Co. Edinburgh; Hurst and Co. London. 1820.

LONG as the austere wonders of the northern regions of our globe have resisted our attempts to become intimately acquainted with them, the laudable curiosity of man, his love of science, and the desire of obtaining practical benefit from new geographical facilities, have continually excited him to persevere in his difficult and dangerous endeavours to penetrate the Arctic barrier. In late years, we have been furnished with a variety of details by those who have shared in these enterprizes, which have all in course attracted the interest, if they have failed to gratify the hopes, of the public; and now, at the moment of our writing these lines, the safe return of our last expedition to the North, (which had to many people become a matter of doubt and fear,) after at least a partial accomplishment of its object, has prepared us for new information and fresh entertainment, with increased probability of farther investigation and hitherto unknown success. We await with anxiety the narrative of Lieut. Parry's voyage; which, no doubt, will be communicated to us as soon as the care and time necessary for its publication will permit.

In the mean while, we turn with renewed interest to the volumes before us; which contain the results of valuable researches, instituted in the course of not fewer than seventeen voyages to the Spitzbergen or Greenland whale-fishery, by an able and spirited navigator, as well as a zealous and acute observer of the phænomena of nature; and of which, although the substance of some of the chapters or sections had been anticipated by others, the whole involves a goodly portion of original or important information. The author, the commander of a Greenland whale-ship, has already been introduced to our readers in vol. lxxxv. p. 417., vol. lxxxvi. p. 12., and vol. xci. p. 184. Mr. S. observes:

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'The work consists of two distinct parts, each occupying a volume. The first relates to the progress of Discovery in the Arctic Regions, and the Natural History of Spitzbergen and the Greenland Sea; the second is devoted to the Whale-Fishery as conducted in the Seas of Greenland and Davis' Strait.

'Numerous authorities have been consulted in preparing these sheets for publication, and in all cases, as far as I am aware, a proper reference has been made to the works from which any information has been derived. For a small but interesting *Mémoire* by M. S. B. J. Noel, *Sur l'Antiquité de la pêche de la Baleine*, from which I have drawn some valuable historical information, I was indebted to the kindness of M. Noel de la Morinière, author of an extensive work on Ancient and Modern Fisheries, now in the course of publication in France. Access to some valuable works which I had not in my own possession, and different acts of kindness or assistance, were afforded me by the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Professor Jameson, P. Neill, Esq. Dr. Traill, and my father. By means of some valuable instruments, &c. furnished me by Sir Joseph Banks, whose friendly suggestions and encouragement I am happy to acknowledge, and whose kindness and liberality I shall ever remember with gratitude, I was enabled to make some experiments on sub-marine temperature, the result of which proved novel and interesting. These, with some facilities kindly given me by William Swainson, Esq. of Liverpool, the Reverend George Young, and Mr. Thomas Parkin of Whitby, and occasional obligations from other friends, noticed in different parts of the work, constitute, I believe, the amount of the assistance which I have received in preparing the materials which occupy the following pages.'

With regard to the long agitated question concerning a northern communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans, Mr. Scoresby infers that it exists somewhere, from the state of the currents in the sea of Spitzbergen; from the quantity of ice, that is annually dissolved, greatly exceeding that which is generated in the tracts accessible to the whale-fishers; from the drift-wood that abounds in the Greenland Sea, among which have been found mahogany and logwood; from the northern aspect of the continents of Europe, Asia, and America; and from the circumstance of whales, harpooned in the Greenland-seas, having been found in the Pacific. He also remarked that some of the drift-wood was perforated either by a *pholas* or a *ptinus*, and may therefore be presumed to be derived from some trans-polar region. A north-eastern passage appears to be much more uncertain, and at all events impracticable in the course of a year; so that it can hold out no prospect of facility to our commerce with China, or with India. Should any such communication be found to exist about the parallel of 70°, between the southern

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southern part of Baffin's Bay, or the northern part of Hudson's Bay, and Behring's Strait, he believes that it would be open only at intervals of years, and then, perhaps, for not more than eight or nine weeks in a season. Yet various weighty considerations ought to stimulate inquiry into the natural history of circum-polar countries; and Mr. S. justly applauds the spirit and sagacity of our early navigators, who accomplished many hazardous voyages in small barks, and effected so much with the scanty resources of information and instruments that were within their reach. We would not be understood to think lightly of that strain of piety, also, which characterizes some of their narratives: but to believe that particular interferences of Providence were vouchsafed in their favour is to assume that miracles had not then ceased, and that the operation of those great and general laws, which regulate the universe, is incessantly liable to interruptions and exceptions.

Mr. Scoresby proceeds to impart some useful hints relative to the prosecution of northern discoveries; such as recommending vessels of 100 or 200 tons, in preference to those of larger dimensions; the passing of a winter in the northern quarter of Baffin's Bay, so as to be enabled to commence exploration in May or June; and the carrying out of Morton's apparatus, as a substitute for a graving-dock. He particularly insists also on the feasibility of performing long journeys by land, on the northern shores of America; the traveller advancing about twenty miles in a day, on a sledge drawn by men, or dogs; *bivouacking* on the snow; and providing for his subsistence tea, oatmeal, bacon, bread, and sometimes a few fish or fowls, but no spirits; and, 'whenever he finds it necessary to use artificial stimuli for accelerating the circulation of the blood, and promoting the heat of the system, instead of resorting to spirituous liquors, knowing them to be injurious, drinking freely of warm tea, which the plentifulness of wood for fire in the interior of North America generally affords him a ready opportunity of preparing. His relish, with his tea, consists of a bit of broiled bacon, and perhaps a little oatmeal-porridge; on which articles, when other supplies of fowl, fish, or quadruped, fail, being effectual for his nourishment, he can live with contentment.' As Mr. S. conceives that we have no well-authenticated account of any vessel having attained to a higher latitude than 81° or 82°, and that field-ice may possibly extend from near Spitzbergen to the Pole, he urges the practicability of a journey over that space in sledges, drawn by dogs, rein-deer, or men, and directed by the compass and Indian guides. It is doubt-

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ful, however, whether reliance can be placed on the compass in the immediate vicinity of the Pole; and, on such a forlorn mission, the guides might prove ignorant, or faithless: but, should difficulties of an insurmountable nature occur, the party might retrace their steps.

The progress of discovery in the north having been so lately narrated by Mr. Barrow, and others, Mr. S. might have dispensed with a recapitulation of it; which is, however, compressed within narrow bounds. From his descriptive account of the polar countries, he excludes Iceland and West Greenland, because Sir George Mackenzie and Dr. Henderson have amply illustrated the former, and Sir Charles Geiseké has described the latter. He commences, therefore, with *Spitzbergen;* which, as its name imports, is a land of *mountain-peaks.* Its general features present the picturesque and striking contrast of dark and abrupt rocks, with masses of ice and snow. Some of its insulated elevations ascend to between four and five thousand feet: but few of them can be scaled without imminent danger, because, although the summits may be occasionally reached with toil and trepidation, the descent can seldom be attempted with impunity; and the points formed by some of them are so fine as scarcely even in imagination to afford a resting place.

One of the most extraordinary constituents of arctic scenery is the *ice-berg*, many of which occur in the valleys of Spitzbergen. A little to the northward of Horn Sound is the largest which the author ever saw, for it occupies eleven miles of sea-coast in length.

'The highest part of the precipitous front adjoining the sea is, by measurement, 402 feet, and it extends backward toward the summit of the mountain, to about four times that elevation. Its surface forms a beautiful inclined plane of smooth snow: the edge is uneven and perpendicular. At the distance of fifteen miles, the front edge subtended an angle of ten minutes of a degree. Near the South Cape lies another iceberg, nearly as extensive as this. It occupies the space between the lateral ridges of hills, and reaches the very summit of the mountain, in the back-ground, on which it rests.'—

'On an excursion to one of the Seven Icebergs, in July, 1818, I was particularly fortunate in witnessing one of the grandest effects which these polar glaciers ever present. A strong north-westerly swell having for some hours been beating on the shore, had loosened a number of fragments attached to the iceberg, and various heaps of broken ice denoted recent shoots of the seaward edge. As we rowed towards it with a view of proceeding close to its base, I observed a few little pieces fall from the top, and while my eye was fixed upon the place, an immense column, probably fifty feet square, and one hundred and fifty feet high, began to leave

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leave the parent ice at the top, and leaning majestically forward with an accelerated velocity, fell with an awful crash into the sea. The water into which it plunged was converted into an appearance of vapour or smoke, like that from a furious cannonading. The noise was equal to that of thunder, which it nearly resembled. The column which fell was nearly square, and in magnitude resembled a church. It broke into thousands of pieces. This circumstance was a happy caution; for we might inadvertently have gone to the very base of the icy cliff, from whence masses of considerable magnitude were continually breaking. This iceberg was full of rents, as high as any of our people ascended upon it, extending in a direction perpendicularly downward, and dividing it into innumerable columns. The surface was very uneven, being furrowed and cracked all over. This roughness appeared to be occasioned by the melting of the snow, some streams of water being seen running over the surface; and others having worn away the superficial ice, could still be heard pursuing their course through sub-glacial channels to the front of the iceberg, where in transparent streams, or in small cascades, they fell into the sea. In some places, chasms of several yards in width were seen, in others they were only a few inches or feet across. One of the sailors who attempted to walk across the iceberg, imprudently stept into a narrow chasm filled up with snow to the general level. He instantly plunged up to his shoulders, and might, but for the sudden extension of his arms, have been buried in the gulf.'

To the strong contrariety of light and shade, resulting from the intermixture of black lichens and masses of snow, combined with the height and steepness of the mountains, is to be attributed the deceptive nearness of the land, which has often imposed even on tried and skilful mariners. — The coast abounds in deep bays and extensive sands, in many of which are excellent harbours; and some of them are here particularized in a manner that cannot fail to be acceptable to future visitors. — The country may possibly be rich in minerals: but from the very partial and imperfect observations which have been made, nothing valuable, except marble and coal, has been discovered. From the specimens furnished to Professor Jameson, it appeared to that celebrated mineralogist that the mountains and shores, whence they were obtained, are formed of gneiss, mica-slate, and quartz-rock, which contain great and frequent beds of bluish lime-stone. By frost and weathering, most of the rocks are much fissured externally, and fragments of larger or smaller dimensions are often detached from them. On one spot, where the author landed, he found a low table-land immediately on the shore, protected from inundation by a natural embankment of rounded pebbles, many of which were calcareous and prettily

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veined: but, after having advanced about half a furlong into the country, he observed mica-slate in almost vertical strata; and, a little farther on, an extensive bed of lime-stone, in small angular fragments. The soil was interspersed with large ponds of fresh water, derived from the melting of snow and ice, and in some places with remains of snow. Its swampy and boggy portions presented a few sickly mosses: but most of the ground was destitute of vegetation. On the confines of the morass, and on a surface of a somewhat firmer texture, were found *Saxifraga oppositifolia, S. Grœnlandica, Salix polaris, Draba Alpina,* &c. A catalogue, drawn up by Mr. Brown, is annexed in the Appendix, exhibiting the few plants which Mr. Scoresby had been enabled to collect, in the course of several visits to the shore in 1818. The species do not amount to fifty; most of them are of a dwarfish size; and they spring up, blossom, and mature their seed, within the space of a month or six weeks. *Salix polaris,* the solitary species which partakes of the nature of a tree, grows only to the height of three or four inches.—With much fatigue and difficulty, an eminence of 3000 feet of perpendicular height was attained; and a thermometer, placed among stones in the shade, indicated a temperature as high as 37°. It is, indeed, not a little remarkable that, during the months of July and August, the prevalence of thaw should remove the snow from the most considerable elevations, when the mean temperature of the country is about 30° lower than in Scotland, where Ben Nevis is sometimes capped with snow throughout the year. This apparent anomaly Mr. Scoresby ascribes to the superior clearness of the atmosphere, and the steepness of the rocky mountains in Spitzbergen, the sun being thus actually vertical to the one surface or the other. 'The highest temperature,' says he, 'I ever observed in Spitzbergen was 48°; but in the summer of 1773, when Captain Phipps visited Spitzbergen, a temperature of 58½° once occurred.* Supposing this to be the greatest degree of heat which takes place, it will require an elevation of 7791 feet for reducing that temperature to the freezing point; and hence we may reckon this to be about the altitude of the *upper* line of congelation, where frost perpetually prevails. †'—The sublime and striking varieties of the prospect from the summit of the mountain are depicted in simple but animated language. The descent was accomplished in safety, but not without very considerable risk. In the shingle, on the

'* Voyage towards the North Pole, p. 46.'

'† See Professor Leslie's Geometry, 2d edition, *Table,* p. 496.'

beach,

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beach, were numerous nests of terns, ducks, and burgomasters. The only insect seen by the writer was a small green fly; which, with a species of *helix*, *Clio borealis*, and small shrimps, abounded on the shore. Besides the birds already mentioned, the party observed the puffin, little auk, guillemot, black guillemot, kittiwake, fulmar, arctic gull, brent-goose, crimson-headed sparrow, sand-piper, &c. but not a single quadruped.

The climate of Spitzbergen is, generally speaking, intensely cold; the average temperature, even during the three warmest months of the year, being only 34½°: but that country has the advantage of being visited by the sun for the uninterrupted period of four months; and, although its long winter is proportionably desolate, the darkness is by no means complete; for the sun, even in its greatest south declination, approaching to within 13½° of the horizon, affords a faint twilight for about one-fourth part of every twenty-four hours. To this should be added the effect of the *aurora borealis*, which is sometimes singularly brilliant; the uncommon brightness of the stars; the influence of the moon, which in north declination appears for twelve or fourteen days together without setting; and the reflection from the snow. — The answers to Colonel Beaufoy's queries, which are already before the public, have furnished the author with some farther details relative to this part of his subject, which he resumes more generally in a subsequent chapter.

Mr. Scoresby's account of the island of Jan Mayen supplies many of the defects in the meagre narratives of the Dutch, and corrects some of their erroneous reckonings as to latitudes and bearings. He ascertained the height of Beerenberg to be 6870 feet above the level of the sea, and visible, in clear weather, at the distance of 30 or 40 leagues. On the 4th of August, all the high lands were covered with ice and snow; and, where accumulations of the latter had taken place in deep valleys and cavities, the soil retained a part of its winter-load even down to the water's edge. Between capes North-East and South-East are three remarkable ice-bergs, which occupy deep recesses in the cliff, and have the semblance of immense cataracts suddenly arrested in their progress. The spot on which the author landed was covered with a black bed of iron-sand and augite. *Pyroxene* is mentioned as another ingredient: but this is the French name for augite; and, according to Haüy's arrangement, its modifications include several substances which have been considered by the Wernerians as distinct species. The black sand, which often indicates the proximity of volcanic soil, was, as usual,

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very heavy; it was attractable by the magnet, and had the appearance of coarse gun-powder. On the present occasion, other symptoms of subterranean fire speedily presented themselves, as burned clay, scoriæ, crystals of augite, &c. The hill from which the whole appeared to have been discharged was scaled with great difficulty, on account of its steepness and the looseness of its materials. On reaching the summit, estimated at 1500 feet above the level of the sea, the crater was distinctly exposed to view, forming a basin of 500 or 600 feet in depth, and 600 or 700 yards in diameter, and having its bottom filled with alluvial matter. At the foot of this eminence, near to an accumulation of castellated lava, is another crater of a similar form. Numerous pointed rocks, supposed to be of trap-formation, are seen sticking in the volcanic sand; together with a rock which seemed to be nearly allied to the basaltic mill-stone of Andernach. The cliff of yellowish-grey friable earth, from the circumstances mentioned concerning it, appears to be trap-conglomerate. We note these particulars because they afford another among many instances that might be produced of the occasional identity, at least, of volcanic and trap-rocks. From some appearances observed at sea, in April, 1818, there is reason to infer that this, or some other volcano on the island, was then in a state of activity. A few plants, such as *Rumex digynus*, *Saxifraga tricuspidata* and *oppositifolia*, *Arenaria peploides*, *Silene acaulis*, *Draba verna*, &c., were found scattered among the volcanic fragments. Several cetaceous animals, chiefly belonging to *Balæna physalis*, and symptoms of foxes, polar bears, and rein-deer, were seen: but the only birds observed were burgomasters, fulmars, puffins, guillemotes, little auks, kittiwakes, and terns.

In his hydrographical survey of the Greenlandic sea, the author makes some pertinent remarks on the variable colour of the waters of the ocean; and he attributes the olive-green tinge, which it often assumes in high latitudes, to the presence of countless swarms of minute *medusæ* and other animal substances blending their yellow tint with the blue of the sea-water.

'For the purpose,' he says, 'of ascertaining the nature of the colouring substance, and submitting it to a future analysis, I procured a quantity of snow from a piece of ice that had been washed by the sea, and was greatly discoloured by the deposition of some peculiar substance upon it. A little of this snow, dissolved in a wine-glass, appeared perfectly nebulous; the water being found to contain a great number of semi-transparent spherical substances, with others resembling small portions of fine hair. On examining these

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these substances with a compound microscope, I was enabled to make the following observations.

'The semi-transparent globules appeared to consist of an animal of the medusa kind. It was from 1-20th to 1-30th of an inch in diameter. Its surface was marked with twelve distinct patches or nebulæ, of dots of a brownish colour; these dots were disposed in pairs, four pairs, or sixteen pairs alternately, composing one of the nebula. The body of the medusa was transparent. When the water containing these animals was heated, it emitted a very strong odour, in some respects resembling the smell of oysters, when thrown on hot coals, but much more offensive. The fibrous or hair-like substances were more easily examined, being of a darker colour. They varied in length from a point to one-tenth of an inch; and when highly magnified, were found to be beautifully moniliform. In the longest specimens, the number of bead-like articulations was about thirty; hence their diameter appeared to be about the 1-300th part of an inch. Some of these substances seemed to vary their appearance; but whether they were living animals, and possessed of locomotion, I could not ascertain. From one of the larger specimens I observed some fine collateral fibres. They possessed the property of decomposing light; and, in some cases, showed all the colours of the spectrum very distinctly. The size of the articulations seemed equal in all, the difference in length being occasioned by a difference in the number of articulations. The whole substance had an appearance very similar to the horns or antennæ of shrimps, fragments of which they might possibly be, as the squillæ are very abundant in the Greenland Sea.

'I afterwards examined the different qualities of sea-water, and found these substances very abundant in that of an olive-green colour; and also occurring, but in lesser quantity, in the bluish-green water. The number of medusæ in the olive-green sea was found to be immense. They were about one-fourth of an inch asunder. In this proportion, a cubic inch of water must contain 64; a cubic foot 110,592; a cubic fathom, 23,887,872; and a cubical mile about 23,888,000,000,000,000! From soundings made in the situation where these animals were found, it is probable the sea is upwards of a mile in depth; but whether these substances occupy the whole depth is uncertain. Provided, however, the depth to which they extend be but 250 fathoms, the above immense number of one species may occur in a space of two miles square. It may give a better conception of the amount of medusæ in this extent, if we calculate the length of time that would be requisite, with a certain number of persons, for counting this number. Allowing that one person could count a million in seven days, which is barely possible, it would have required, that 80,000 persons should have started at the creation of the world, to complete the enumeration at the present time!

'What a stupendous idea this fact gives of the immensity of creation, and of the bounty of Divine Providence, in furnishing such

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such a profusion of life in a region so remote from the habitations of men! But if the number of animals in a space of two miles square be so great, what must be the amount requisite for the discolouration of the sea, through an extent of perhaps twenty or thirty thousand square miles?

'These animals are not without their evident economy, as on their existence possibly depends the being of the whole race of mysticete, and some other species of cetaceous animals. For the minute medusæ apparently afford nourishment to the sepiæ, actiniæ, cancri, helices, and other genera of mollusca and aptera, so abundant in the Greenland Sea, while these latter constitute the food of several of the whale tribe inhabiting the same region; thus producing a dependant chain of animal life, one particular link of which being destroyed, the whole must necessarily perish.

'Besides the minute medusæ and moniliform substances, the water of the Spitzbergen Sea, taken up in latitude 77° 30′, was found to contain several species of animalcules. Of these I discovered three kinds, full of animal life, but invisible to the naked eye.'

The sea in the Arctic regions is of somewhat less specific gravity, and consequently less salt, than in the temperate or the torrid latitudes. Its temperature in all seasons is nearly that of the point of congelation: but, in some situations, even during intense frost, and in latitude from 76° to 78°, it is occasionally as high as 36° of Fahrenheit. It likewise appears from the author's ingenious experiments, made with an instrument which he terms the *marine diver*, that, in the neighbourhood of Spitzbergen, the temperature increases on descending, contrary to the fact which generally takes place in other regions; a circumstance that is subsequently ascribed to the influence of a sub-marine current. The depth, as in other quarters of the globe, is very variable: but in latitude 36° 30′, longitude 4° 48′ west, sounding was attempted with 1200 fathoms of line, without finding the bottom. These and other observations are followed by statements of the various degrees of the impregnation of salt-water, in different sorts of wood, by pressure at great depths; the results of which are given in a tabular form. From the state of the currents, which is minutely detailed, we may infer the prevalence of a south-westerly current in the high latitudes of the Greenland seas, which is probably continued down to Cape Farewell. The author's observations on waves and swells will apply to almost any part of the ocean: but here intermittent swells, especially among ice, are not uncommon.

As the different kinds of polar-ice have lately been so often and so particularly described, we shall omit any mention of their

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their varieties, but we are tempted to transcribe the ensuing paragraph:

'Fresh-water ice is fragile, but hard; the edges of a fractured part are frequently so keen, as to inflict a wound like glass. The most transparent pieces are capable of concentrating the rays of the sun, so as to produce a considerable intensity of heat. With a lump of ice, of by no means regular convexity, I have frequently burnt wood, fired gunpowder, melted lead, and lit the sailors' pipes, to their great astonishment; all of whom, who could procure the needful articles, eagerly flocked around me, for the satisfaction of smoking a pipe ignited by such extraordinary means. Their astonishment was increased, on observing, that the ice remained firm and pellucid, while the solar rays emerging from it were so hot that the hand could not be kept longer in the focus than for the space of a few seconds. In the formation of these lenses, I roughed them out with a small axe, then scraped them with a knife, and polished them merely by the warmth of the hand, supporting them during the operation in a woollen glove. I once procured a piece of the purest ice, so large, that a lens of sixteen inches diameter was obtained out of it; unfortunately, however, the sun became obscured before it was completed, and never made its appearance again for a fortnight, during which time, the air being mild, the lens was spoiled.'

The difference of specific gravity between the most transparent and compact ice, and that which is the most porous and opaque, is by no means considerable, and the most transparent is sometimes also the lightest. It is moreover stated that, for every solid foot of ice which is seen above water, in a mass floating on the sea, there are at least eight feet below. — The whole of the fourth chapter, which treats of the polar-ice, contains much useful and interesting information; and, though the greater part of it may be found scattered in other publications, it is here brought together in the form of a distinct essay, and will doubtless afford instruction both to the whale-fisher and the natural philosopher. Among the more anomalous phenomena to which the author adverts, we may notice that of a ship apparently fast locked in the ice, drifting or revolving in the course of a few hours to a considerable distance from its first position, and thus indicating a movement in the whole field, without any very obvious cause.

In the section on the nearest approximation to the Pole, we have the detail of an interesting case of the author's own advance to latitude 81° 30′: but it would have been more properly introduced in the discussion of the question relative to the practicability of reaching the north Pole by sea. If the facts stated be correct, of such a consummation we may for ever despair. It may also be deduced from Mr. Scoresby's observ-

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observations, that the causes of the increase and of the waste of polar-ice are, in the course of a few years, about equally balanced; so that we have little reason to apprehend any permanent augmentation of cold from its gradual accumulation, or any steady melioration of the seasons from its annual diminution.

Under *Atmospherology*, the title of a chapter, we are presented with some judicious observations on the Arctic climate. In the seasons corresponding to spring and autumn in other countries, it is variable and tempestuous, the range of temperature probably exceeding 50°. Winds from the north, west, and east, bring with them the extreme cold of the icy regions which encompass the Pole; while those from the south, south-west, or south-east, convey the temperature of the neighbouring seas. The months of May, June, and August, are occasionally pleasant, but rarely: the power of the sun being such as sometimes to produce a comfortable degree of warmth, to dissolve a large portion of the ice and snow, and to advance and perfect a limited vegetation on some parts of the shores. In July, and particularly in June and August, very dense fogs prevail, and the thermometer at sea usually indicates a near approximation to the freezing point. In the spring and winter seasons, the atmospheric temperature is liable to very great and rapid transitions, some of the most remarkable of which are frequently simultaneous with the greatest changes of pressure. Various instances of severe cold were experienced by the author and his crew in the month of April, the thermometer on one occasion being —4. When such a low degree of temperature occurs suddenly, and especially when it is accompanied by wind, it considerably annoys even the Greenland sailors, though wrapped up in warm coverings; and it affects the traversing of the magnetic needle, though without impairing its polarity. Other remarkable results of cold are quoted from the journals of navigators who were doomed to winter in Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, Greenland, &c.

In these frigid regions, the scurvy is a prevailing and often a fatal disorder: but there is reason to believe that it is chiefly induced by the use of salted provisions and spirituous liquors.

'The antiseptical property of frost is rather remarkable. Animal substances, requisite as food, of all descriptions, (fish excepted,) may be taken to Greenland, and there preserved any length of time, without being smoked, dried, or salted. No preparation, indeed, of any kind, is necessary for their preservation, nor is any other precaution requisite, excepting suspending them in

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in the air when taken on shipboard, shielding them a little from the sun and wet, and immersing them occasionally in sea-water, or throwing sea-water over them after heavy rains, which will effectually prevent putrescency on the outward passage; and in Greenland, the cold becomes a sufficient preservative, by freezing them as hard as blocks of wood. Beef, mutton, pork, and fowls, (the latter neither plucked nor drawn,) are constantly taken out from England, Shetland, or Orkney, and preserved in this way. When used, the beef cannot be divided but by an axe or a saw; the latter instrument is generally preferred. It is then put into cold water, from which it derives heat by the formation of ice around it, and soon thaws; but if put into hot water, much of the gravy is extracted, and the meat is injured without being thawed more readily. If an attempt be made to cook it before it is thawed, it may be burnt on the outside, while the centre remains raw, or actually in a frozen state. The moisture is well preserved by freezing, a little from the surface only evaporating, so that if cooked when three, four, or five months old, it will frequently appear as profuse of gravy as if it had been but recently killed. But the most surprising action of the frost, on fresh provision, is in preserving it a long time from putrefaction, even after it is thawed and returns into a warm climate *. I have eaten unsalted mutton and beef nearly five months old, which has been constantly exposed to a temperature above the freezing point for

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' * In the year 1808, a leg of mutton which was taken out to Greenland in the ship Resolution, returned to Whitby unsalted. It was then allowed to remain on board of the ship, exposed to the sun during two remarkably hot days, when the thermometer in the shade was as high as 80°. After this, it was presented to an epicure in the town; and although it was reduced to about half its original dimensions by the loss of fat, &c. it was declared, when cooked, to be the most exquisite morsel that he had ever tasted.

' Another remarkable instance of beef and mutton being kept a long time unsalted, under very unfavourable circumstances, occurred in my visit to the Spitzbergen fishery, in the year 1817. Our stock of fresh provision was killed on the 17th of March, soon after which the ship was expected to sail; but unfavourable winds detained us in port until the 1st of April. During this interval, the weather being very mild, our fresh meat was hung up in a large warehouse, to shelter it from the sun and rain. Until the 21st of April, we had so little frost, that it remained soft; but soon afterwards it was hard frozen. After the middle of June, the weather became mild, the summer-fogs set in, and the meat soon thawed. Every day in July, but four, we had either fog or rain, with an average temperature of 36° 8′. The last of this provision was cooked about the 13th of August; and, although the average temperature for fourteen days had been above 50°, yet it proved sweet and palatable.'

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four or five weeks in the outset, and occasionally assailed by the septical influences of rain, fog, heat, and electricity, and yet it has proved perfectly sweet. It may be remarked, that unsalted meat that has been preserved four or five months in a cold climate, and then brought back to the British coasts during the warmth of summer, must be consumed very speedily after it is cut into, or it will fail in a day or two. It will seldom, indeed, keep sweet after being cooked above 20 or 30 hours.

'A further antiseptical effect is produced by the cold of the polar countries, on animal and vegetable substances, so as to preserve them, if they remain in the same climate, unchanged for a period of many years. "It is observable," says Martens, in his "Voyage to Spitzbergen," "that a dead carcase doth not easily rot or consume: for it has been found, that a man buried ten years before, still retained his perfect shape and dress." An instance corroborative of this remark is given by M. *Bleau*, who, in his *Atlas Historique*, informs us, that the bodies of seven Dutch seamen, who perished in Spitzbergen, in the year 1635, when attempting to pass the winter there, were found twenty years afterwards, by some sailors who happened to land about the place where they were interred, in a perfect state, not having suffered the smallest degree of putrefaction.

'Wood and other vegetable substances are preserved in a similar manner. During my exploration of the shores of Spitzbergen, in the year 1818, several huts, and some coffins built entirely of wood, were observed. One of the latter appeared, by an adjoining inscription, to contain the body of a native of Britain, who had died in the year 1788; and though the coffin had lain completely exposed, excepting when covered with snow, during a period of thirty years, the wood of which it was composed not only was undecayed, but appeared quite fresh and new. It was painted red; and the colour even seemed to be but little faded. Things of a similar kind, indeed, have been met with in Spitzbergen, which have resisted all injury from the weather, during the lapse of a century.'

Though the science of Meteorology is still in its infancy, and depends on a knowlege of various subtle and even invisible elements, Mr. Scoresby justly remarks that the invention of physical instruments for the measurement of the pressure, temperature, and moisture of the atmosphere, has enabled observers to deduce certain formulæ and general results, which promise to be multiplied with the progress of discovery. The mean annual temperature, for example, of any extensive tract of country, has been found to undergo little variation in a series of years, though the respective seasons of one year may have differed much from those of another; and Professor Mayer's rule for assigning the temperature of any parallel of latitude has been found to coincide very nearly with the results of actual observation: but,

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when applied to the vicinity of the north Pole, it proves widely defective, an anomalous reduction of temperature being occasioned by the enormous accumulation of ice. Instead, therefore, of 31°, or 32°, being assumed as the mean temperature of the Pole, the author endeavours to shew, by a combination of data, founded partly on fact and partly on analogy, that 10° is a much nearer approximation. The speculative portion of his reasoning on this curious topic is, at least, plausible and ingenious; and he meets some of the more obvious objections that may be urged against it. His tabular statements of the degrees of temperature in high latitudes will, at all events, be duly appreciated by his nautical and scientific readers.

If the changes of pressure in the northern atmosphere, as indicated by the barometer, are both sudden and considerable, the mean of the highest and the lowest observations, in a long series, as in the case of temperature, very nearly corresponds with the mean pressure. Opportunities have not hitherto occurred of noting the changes of the barometer in high latitudes, during the winter-months: but, during the other seasons of the year, it seems to prove a very faithful index of the weather; and hence its value to the mariner, in regions liable to the most abrupt transitions, as from a perfect calm to a violent storm, is almost incalculable. The greatest height of the mercury which the author observed in the course of twelve voyages was 30,57, and the greatest depression, 28,03. He could never detect any small periodical changes expressive of atmospheric tides: but the greatest fall was generally followed or preceded by the greatest rise. — Other general results are stated, which may afford useful hints to those who are employed in the Greenland whale-fishery.

The azure of the polar sky, when unobscured, is deeper than that of a winter sky in this island, and the air is very transparent; so that, in a clear day, objects may be discerned at a great distance with a perspective glass, though such as are on the horizon appear to be affected with a tremulous motion, from the quantity of delicate icy crystals which float in the air. Notwithstanding the prevailing moisture of the atmosphere in high latitudes, the air of a heated room, or of a ship's cabin, indicates such an intense degree of dryness during great cold, that Leslie's hygrometer has been known to mark 150 degrees; and the wainscoting will sometimes shrink half an inch, in a panel of fifteen inches broad.

'The force of the sun's rays is sometimes remarkable. Where they fall upon the snow-clad surface of the ice or land, they are, in a great measure, reflected, without producing any material elevation

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elevation of temperature; but when they impinge on the black exterior of a ship, the pitch on one side occasionally becomes fluid, while ice is rapidly generated on the other; or while a thermometer, placed against the black paint-work on which the sun shines, indicates a temperature of 80 or 90 degrees, or even more, on the opposite side of the ship a cold of 20 degrees is sometimes found to prevail.

'This remarkable force of the sun's rays is accompanied with a corresponding intensity of light. A person placed in the centre of a field or other compact body of ice, under a cloudless atmosphere and elevated sun, experiences such an extraordinary intensity of light, that, if it be encountered for any length of time, it is not only productive of a most painful sensation in the eyes, but sometimes of temporary, or even, as I have heard, of permanent blindness. Under such circumstances, the use of green glasses affords a most agreeable relief. Some of the Indians in North America defend their eyes by the use of a kind of wooden spectacles, having, instead of glasses, a narrow perpendicular slit opposite to each eye. This simple contrivance, which intercepts, perhaps, nine-tenths of the light that would reach a naked eye, prevents any painful consequences from the most intense reflection of light that ever occurs.'

Atmospherical appearances arising from reflection and refraction, such as looming, &c. have been noticed by preceding voyagers: but they are here described with great minuteness. Such of them as are more peculiar to the northern latitudes have usually been observed in the evening or night, after a clear day, and on the commencement or approach of easterly winds. With regard to winds in general, they are much more irregular and more local than even in our temperate countries; and storms arise and subside more suddenly, as we find exemplified by some striking instances which fell under the author's own observation. Even several distinct and *opposite* winds will occasionally prevail at the same instant, and within the range of the visible horizon.—Lightning is seldom seen to the northward of the Arctic circle, and, when it does occur, is seldom accompanied with thunder. It is said that in Spitzbergen neither thunder nor lightning has been observed. 'For my own part,' Mr. Scoresby remarks, 'I have never seen lightning to the northward of latitude 65°, and only in two instances, when at any considerable distance from land. July the 25th, 1815, latitude 63°, longitude 0° 55′ W., lightning was seen in the western quarter; and on the 4th of April in the same year, much lightning with thunder occurred in the latitude of 65°, and longitude 0° 10′ W. In no other cases have I seen lightning at sea, excepting when within 20 or 30 leagues of land.'

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Rain is by no means common, except in the months of July and August, and then only with southerly or westerly winds; and near to the 80th parallel of latitude it seldom if ever occurs. Genuine hail, also, is scarcely ever seen: but a white and snowy concretion, somewhat resembling it, is more common. The configurations of the crystals of snow are principally stelliform and hexagonal; 'though almost every shape, of which the generating angles of 60° and 120° are susceptible, may, in the course of a few years' observation, be discovered.' Many of them are of great beauty and elegance. Their formation, as well as that of *frost-rime*, which differs from common *hoar-frost*, have obviously exercised much of Mr. Scoresby's attentive observation. Should we, however, concede to him the justness of his theory on this very obscure problem, the causes of the invariable tendencies of 'the molecules, and of the crystallizing integral particles,' would still remain involved in darkness. — A summary of the principal facts relative to the phænomenon of fog, and some ingenious directions for ascertaining the sun's altitude during the prevalence of this annoyance to mariners, close an excellent chapter on the meteorology of the Arctic seas.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Julia Alpinula;* with the Captive of Stamboul, and other Poems. By J. H. Wiffen, Author of "Aonian Hours, &c." 12mo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Warren. 1820.

ALTHOUGH it is now too late to dispute the dogma, *poeta nascitur*, of the Roman author, which has been suffered to pass unquestioned into a much approved axiom, we may yet be permitted to assert that, even in this heaven-bestowed mystery of poetry, success must in a great measure be owing to the attention and cultivation of mind which are devoted to it. A poet does not start into existence like Minerva from the head of Jove, full grown and ready armed: he has to undergo the painful discipline of a poetical infancy; to study all the intricate delicacies of poetical expression; to chain down his vivid thoughts and lofty aspirations in the fetters with which taste has restrained the language of poetry; and, lastly, to behold without discouragement his own weak efforts, and not to despair when he places his compositions at the side of the marvels which past times have wrought. The arm of the warrior was once weak in infancy; and our own times have afforded us an example of a poet, whose after-labours

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have been so superior to his juvenile attempts that he may be said (in his own language) to

—— "misbeseem the promise of his spring."

In forming a correct judgment of the merits of a poet, therefore, we may be able to speak with accuracy of the extent of his powers, while it is impossible for us to ascertain to what a pitch he may improve them: but, when the same author again appeals to the public, we are then enabled not only to speak of his positive excellence, but to form an opinion of the progress of his mind and the probability of his eventual success. It is, indeed, among the pleasantest of our labours to mark the gradual improvement of a poetical character; to see the high and noble thoughts which had been but dimly shadowed out in the fearfulness of youthful enterprize, gradually assuming their own vivid and beautiful shapes, cleared from that indistinct twilight which pervades a young poet's mind; to observe him wisely throwing off those puerilities of style, that false affectation of singularity, and that gaudiness of colouring, which are so generally the faults of youth; to behold his compositions assuming a chaster simplicity of feeling, and a severer and deeper tone; — in short, to find the strong marks of matured reflection occupying the place of youthful inexperience, and all the most delicate feelings of the heart stript of every false ornament and laid open to the view. This is the lofty course which we delight to see a young and ardent spirit pursuing, in the too rare instances in which we can perceive it; and to such an one we exclaim, "*Macte igitur virtute, puer.*"

The author of the volume before us has, we suppose, met with sufficient encouragement in his former attempts* to induce him again to appear before the public; and we have the satisfaction of remarking a decided improvement in his style, though it still betrays many inaccuracies and imperfections. In reading his poems, the first idea which strikes the mind is a sense of indistinctness, a want of clearness of effect, which is often observable in the compositions of young authors. In the mind of the poet, no doubt, shades of thought and feeling exist, which he can express only in terms that are very inadequate to convey a strong and vivid sense of his meaning; and yet even this approximation to beauty is felt, though it may not be perfectly understood, by those who possess a high and poetical imagination. Some of the finest passages in

* See "Aonian Hours," a poem in two cantos, and other poems, noticed in our Review for January last.

Shakspeare

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Shakspeare are written in this spirit; — passages which it would be impossible to analyze, or reduce into common language. When, however, this indistinctness of thought and expression pervades the general style of a poet, it becomes a fault instead of a beauty.

For the story of Julia Alpinula, Mr. Wiffen is indebted to the mention of it in the third canto of "Childe Harold." It may, however, be doubted whether the incidents and characters were sufficient in variety and interest to form the basis of a tale, even of the length of that which Mr. W. has produced. After having perused his 'Julia Alpinula,' no one would imagine that it was the story of which the author of Childe Harold has asserted that he knew no history of deeper interest. The digressions and the reflections, also, in which Mr. Wiffen has indulged, have rendered his narrative rather *dull*. — The story is very simple. Julia was the daughter of Julius Alpinus, the chief of Aventicum, who, when the consul Cecina was ravaging his country, armed himself at the call of freedom, and was taken prisoner by his enemy. His daughter throws herself at the feet of the consul, and prays for the life and liberty of her father: when Cecina, pretending to grant her request, orders the bonds to be struck off the limbs of the captive, and directs him to be led out of the hall. He no sooner passes the threshold, however, than he is treacherously put to death by the Roman knights; and Julia, dashed from the heights of hope to despair, mourns, droops, and dies.

The portrait of Julia is very pleasingly drawn:

'And she was beautiful! her face
Was flushed with an angelic grace;
The amorous Sun had wooed it too,
And touched it with a richer hue;
But those who gazed might well declare
They could not wish that face more fair.
Her locks of hyacinthine brown,
O'er the white brow hung loosely down,
Contrasting in the shades they throw,
With the blue, loving eyes below.
And in those eyes there shone a ray,
That like a sweet, consuming fire,
Thrilled every soul with chaste desire,
Yet kept all evil things away.
They who but slightly viewed, had said
Pride was her intimate, for tall
She was — and in her lightest tread
Moved like a princess, but of all
That seeming loftiness, the key
Was an inborn nobility;

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The spirit's fire, the crowning charm
Of a mind exquisitely warm:
In whose unsullied leaf was wrought
All that was delicate in thought,
And beautiful in deed, with these,
She sought all living things to please,
But most to act a daughter's part
Was the Aurora of her heart.
So grateful for a kindness! kind
Herself in act, and thought, and mind;
'Tis true, the assurance was not loud,
But those who heard might more than guess
The resolution deeply vowed;
Her fine eyes swam with tenderness,
And spoke appeal more eloquent
Than words can breathe, or fancy paint.
Their passionate orbs such brilliance haunted,
As soothed by turns, by turns enchanted;
They seemed to chain the gazer's soul
As if with an electric link,
And most he felt their strong controul,
When most their timid glance would shrink.
Like sunshine somewhat spent in shade,
The smile upon her features played;
A glory, bursting half from gloom,
So vividly, and yet so swift,
We cannot fix its transient bloom,
For pleasure's, or for sorrow's gift,
But deem it Heaven's own Cherubin,
Lighting the lamp of soul within.'

The parting of the father and daughter is also well told:

'How *could* he see his daughter's face,
How meet her mournful, mute appeal,
And in her long and last embrace,
And in her voiceless anguish trace
All that himself must shortly feel,
And in her desolate farewell
See the despair she will not tell.
Oh why should hearts no fears can shake,
With softer feelings bend or break!
He wanders wide, — he lingers late.
Pausing, he treads the longest way,
Then, all impatient of delay,
With swift stride intercepts his fate;
He stands within the Ionic gate —
The gate — the marble hall — alas,
That e'er that hall he must repass!
—— She sate, her pale cheek on her hand;
Each drooping eyelash wet with grieving;
She heard his step — she saw him stand —

Nor

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Nor could resolve her mind's misgiving;
As wilder grew her bosom's heaving,
She raised her blue eye from the floor, —
In him there was no sign of strife,
And steadfastly her glance he bore:
That stoical resolve could tell
To her the dreaded truth too well;
She did not rise — she did not speak —
She uttered voice, nor groan, nor shriek,
But low in virgin meekness bowed,
And Nature's daughter wept aloud!'

The following lines, which breathe much tender and melancholy feeling, are the commencement of the death-scene of the desolate Julia:

'The leaf is yellowing on the tree;
Glad o'er the blossom hums the bee;
The sun declining from his height
Sends down to earth a heaven of light,
Not sad, though soft — not gay, though glowing;
The deep, clear lake has stilled its flowing;
The boat, within its waters glassed,
Feels not a breath of air blow past;
Not one small bird we hear to tune
Its bill beneath the mellow noon;
But blue-eyed girls of fairy shapes
With simple hymns to fill the vallies,
As from the vines they pluck the grapes,
And press them, purpling Autumn's chalice,
And earth below, and sky above,
Are full of quiet, full of love.
'Twas in the twilight of that eve,
Julia the last time walked abroad;
The hue — the hour — the water's heave —
And splendid sky her spirit awed.
Then brought the sweet south wind to soothe,
Warm from the blooms she nursed in youth,
A fading breath, a fragrance sere,
In funeral of the withered year.
It came, it played with odorous wings,
Upon her lyre's thrice holy strings,
Which oft, when day had ceased to roll,
She touched to soothe her father's soul.
That odour of decay, that tone
Across her languid senses blown,
Whispering divinely of the praise,
The endearments of departed days,
Unlocked, as with a golden key,
The long-sealed springs of memory.
The air was bliss, the music balm,
Her quick heart fluttered at the charm,

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And she was soothed; her gentle mind
All things renewed, recalled, combined,
She loved and lived o'er all again,
If not with pleasure, not with pain;
For pain she felt had lost its sting,
Death had no bitterness to bring;
Refined from passion's earthly shade,
O, what was life but bliss delayed!
She looked to Heaven; the darkening blue
Melted into her heart like dew;
That heart was happy, and though night
Was gathering quickly o'er it bright,
She felt her passing hour was come,
And pined for her Elysian home.'

We should be glad, if our limits allowed us, to transcribe Julia's hymn to Proserpine; which is written in the style of the invocation to Sabrina, in Comus, and contains many spirited lines.

'The Captive of Stamboul' possesses more of that sort of interest which should distinguish a poetic tale than the story of Julia Alpinula. It has more variety, more character, and more force; in short, it is more like the tales of Lord Byron, which are, or have been, the model of the day. This style of writing has become fashionable and popular only within these few years; that is to say, since the present race of poets commenced their career. The character of English poetry within that time has undergone a wonderful change;—a change which may most properly be attributed to the many very extraordinary circumstances that have occurred within the last half century, and cannot have failed to exert a powerful effect on the minds and imaginations of men. The public intellect is wound to a high pitch, and the public feelings are all highly excited:—we are no longer contented with the peaceable imitation of our progenitors;—we no longer tolerate the mediocrity of intellect which distinguished the reigns of George the First and his successor;—we are no longer satisfied with unobtrusive elegies or calm pastorals, intermingled occasionally with a spirited war-song on the success of the British arms. In reading the works of all the great modern poets, we cannot fail to remark that their first object is not to gain the approbation of the judgment, but to rouse the feelings of the heart; not so much to strike the strings of the lyre as the chords of the soul. In pursuance of this taste, we find most of the poets of the day abandoning all mere detail and narrative, and confining themselves to the delineation of the stronger passions of the mind; and hence we have those masterly sketches of powerful feeling that have lately

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lately been presented to us;—those short tales in which love, or hatred, or revenge is, as it were, concentrated, and by which the heart of the reader is so intensely excited. It is not, however, a good symptom of the soundness of the poetical taste of the present times, that the epic has been so completely abandoned; or at least is so much above the feelings and, perhaps, we may say, the industry of the generality of modern readers, as to have ceased to be a popular form of composition. Information and *reading* have been extended in an unparalleled manner in the present age: but, as the stream has become broader, it is necessarily less deep; and we may justly question whether the interests of true taste have been promoted in a manner adequate to the extension of general knowlege. We have acquired a great many more readers, but we very much doubt whether the number of good judges has increased in proportion.

Sir Walter Scott was the first to introduce that style of composition which may be not improperly termed the modern epic; and Lord Byron improved on it by compressing it into as small a shape as he could, with the same portion of strength, spirit, and interest. After him we have had a legion of imitators of every varying degree of merit, till our eyes have almost turned with disgust from those portentous words "*A Tale,*" that usually follow the title which the versifier has chosen.—Among this *pecus imitatorum*, Mr. Wiffen must certainly be placed, though he holds in it a respectable rank. He may, perhaps, assert that it is only his misfortune to write *after* Lord Byron: but we must still think that, had his Lordship never written, Mr. Wiffen's poems would not bear the shape which they now assume. We grant that much may be said in extenuation of this offence in a young poet, whose head and heart are full of all the bright and glorious images with which such a writer as Lord Byron abounds: we know that it must tincture his manner, and derogate from his originality; and we only mention it as a fact characteristic of Mr. Wiffen's poetry. It is a fault which often yields to time and new impressions; and, if an author possesses any portion of original genius and feeling, it must sooner or later work its way into open daylight, unfettered by the trammels of early predilections or prejudices. We must imbibe the thoughts of others before we can form any original ideas; and a young poet may be contented to tread to a certain extent in the steps of his predecessors.

As to the incidents which compose the tale of the 'Captive of Stamboul,' they are taken from a passage in Gibbon, with some additions and variations, in order to convert them to

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poetic uses. Andronicus, the grandson of Alexius Comnenus, is cast into a dungeon by the Emperor Manuel in a fit of hatred and jealous power; and the opening of the poem describes two knights passing, in their lonely boat, the sea-beaten tower in which the illustrious captive is confined. — One of them relates to the other the story of the Prince's wrongs; and, moved by his situation, they determine to free him, or perish in the attempt.

' " O Heaven forbid!" the youth replied,
" And freedom's voice, and knighthood's call!
Cosmo, I left a plighted bride,
Her tears will stain her father's hall,
If fortune cross, or aught delay
Her warrior in his homeward way!
And dear the cause must be, to buy
From me those diamonds of the eye!
At price then of those drops, whose dew
Will wring another's bosom too,
I am thine own, by crag or wave,
To watch or win, to strike or save.
I could not dare to see again
Her portico of purple vines,
If but dishonour's thought should stain
The star which on my bosom shines:
But doom the arm that perils not
In beauty's quarrel, every vein
That runs with ruddy drops, to rot
Beneath a taunting chain,
And that ignoblest hands should rase
The crest and spur from one so base." '

The elder warrior then tells his companion that, in examining the ruined tower, he had discovered

' Some semblance of a dizzy stair;'

and that he would find means to accomplish the escape of Prince Andron.

In the mean time, the guard enters the cell of the prisoner, and finds his shackles empty and the captive flown. Then we have a long description of the Emperor's fury and anger on hearing this account, not conceived in the best possible taste: but his agitation is calmed on beholding the entrance of Eudora, the wife of Andronicus, whom he had summoned to his presence on suspicion of her having been accessory to the flight of her lord:

' And, O! so fair, so soft, so young!
Can this Eudora be the star
Which governed Andron's fate in war;

She

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She who his cares and toils to soothe,
Left State's bright palace for the stir
Of camps and leaguered towns? in sooth,
Love's most enthusiast worshipper!
Who all day long would watch with eye
And heart that trembled but for him,
His course of glory, till the sky,
At dewfall, waxed dim,
And the shrill horn recalled his foot
From conquering charge, or far pursuit;
She, who would then, with fond embrace,
Unclasp the vizor from his face,
Bear water whence cool fountains flow,
To slake his thirst and bathe his brow,
Or, last extremity of pain,
Bind with her scarf the wounds which gush
In heavy drops from the gashed vein;
And whilst her bleeding hero deep
Enjoys the fever-balm of sleep,
Each rude, disturbing murmur hush,
So that not e'en the slightest thing
Had leave to flutter on the wing;
In peril, care, and agony,
His minister: can this be she?'

In despite of her beauty and her misfortunes, the Emperor orders her to be confined in the tower from which her husband had made his escape. Andronicus, in the meanwhile, was not far distant. He had succeeded in breaking his chain, and had discovered in the walls of the tower some uncemented stones, by the removal of which he was enabled to enter the passage that led to the broken steps seen by the elder warrior. While he was remaining concealed in the ruins, he heard the doors of his prison closed on a new captive, whom he soon found to be his suffering Eudora; and in the dead of the night he returned into the cell, where Eudora was sleeping. We have not room for the pathetic description of their mutual joy when she awakes. By the assistance of the two warriors, who make their appearance at the proper time, and by the aid of a ring, (we presume, the imperial signet,) which with great propriety came into the possession of the fugitives, the Prince and Eudora make their escape; at which event the reader, of course, is very much rejoiced. We should mention that they fly for safety over the sea.

'No longer tossed upon the waves of night,
'Tis morn, and ocean smiles again in light;
The clouds have vanished ere the stars went down,
And Heaven's deep figure shows without a frown

As

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As in Creation's birth; around behind,
The azure waves are rolled before the wind;
There one white sail glides happily and fleet,
As speed and sunshine fill the flowing sheet.
* * * * * *
Through noon, through eve, through night, a second day
Burns on the wave, but still away, away.
The bark lies forward to a barbarous shore,
And doubt expires, and danger is no more.'

In his versification, Mr. Wiffen very frequently imitates Moore, and sometimes not most successfully. He is also rather too much attached to double rhymes, of which the pursuit of Andronicus (p. 150.) is a flagrant instance; and there is absolutely a page full of participles. Many of his rhymes are inadmissible, of which it is impossible that he must not be aware; and we cannot see any beauty in the alliteration of numbers of his lines, such as

'A startling *vision*, *void* and *vain*,
Whirled into *whiteness round* the *rock*.'

Mr. W. should beware, moreover, of incongruity in his images.—Considerable merit is displayed in the smaller pieces at the end of the volume; particularly in the lines on a seal, with the motto *con te sono*, and those 'written beneath a miniature in the possession of a friend.' We remarked, in our former article relative to Mr. W., that he belonged to the Society of Quakers, among whom the *profession* of *poetry* has been somewhat rare; and we are glad to find that the instances of their worship of the Muses are becoming more frequent, since it is probable that the influence of the sacred Nine may be beneficial in softening some of the rigorous peculiarities of that sect, while we trust that it is not likely to intrude on any of the better qualities by which they are distinguished. We have now before us another volume of poems by one of Mr. W.'s brotherhood; which we mean to notice in a subsequent page.

ART. III. *Political Essays*, with Sketches of Public Characters. By William Hazlitt. 8vo. pp. 439. 14s. Boards. Hone, 1819.

"BOOKS," says Milton, "are not dead things, but do contain a potency of life in them to be as active as that soul was whose progeny they are; nay they do preserve, as in a viol, the purest efficacy and extraction of that living intellect that bred them." This is a "viol" of *Eau de mille fleurs*

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to those who inhale the fragrance only: but it is *aqua-fortis* to him on whose skin a single drop falls; a blister rises instantly on the spot. It is very volatile, and very pungent; and we are almost afraid to take out the cork:

> " It is of a nature so subtle
> That, unless it be luted with care,
> The odour will fly through the bottle,
> And its spirit impregnate the air."

The curses of Caliban on Prospero are not more venomous or more various than Mr. Hazlitt's denunciations against Southey, Coleridge, Wordsworth, the author of letters signed *Vetus*, the editors of the Courier, Times, &c. &c.:

> —— " all the charms
> Of Sycorax, toads, beetles, bats, light on them;"

and they are " pinch'd as thick as honeycombs, each pinch more stinging than the bees that made them." If any of these gentlemen, therefore, should in their turn avail themselves of the opportunity which Mr. Hazlitt affords, by the present republication of his *fugitive pieces*, and " rack *him* with old cramps and fill all *his* bones with aches," he must bear the visitation with composure; for they may exclaim,

> " You taught me language; and my profit on't
> Is, I know how to curse: the red plague rid you
> For learning me your language."

It is almost extra-judicial in *us*, however, to notice this volume, otherwise than simply to announce its appearance, as we should do if Mr. Perry or Mr. Walter were to collect into a volume the leading paragraphs and the postscripts for the last ten years of the Morning Chronicle or the Times. We believe that no articles occur in the work before us which have not appeared in some of the news-papers of the day, as portraits of character, criticisms on political writers or on political works, *jeux d'esprit*, &c.: but the ardent and unstudied eloquence, the fertile fancy, the quick sensibility, and the discriminating genius, which Mr. Hazlitt has displayed in the works that have already come before us *, would naturally tempt us to stray from the turnpike-road of professional duty, and wander with him wheresoever he invites us. To speak honestly, however, we do not think that Mr. Hazlitt will ob-

* See Monthly Review, vol. xci. p. 53., for an account of his Characters of Shakspeare's Plays, and his remarks on the English Poets and Comic Writers.

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tain much accession of fame from the present volume. Shakspeare is the object of his idolatry; and the rapturous enthusiasm, which burns within his own breast, kindles a corresponding flame in those whom he summonses to worship at the same shrine: — but the feelings of scorn, hatred, and contempt, fortunately for mankind, are not so easily communicable as the better feelings of respect, love, and admiration. 'I am no politician,' says the author of these 'Political Essays,' in the very first sentence of his book, 'and still less can I be said to be a party-man.' True it is that he very rarely indulges in the discussion of a political principle, for he confines himself almost exclusively to the vituperation of political characters, and indeed of political parties generally. He is certainly 'no party-man:' for Whig and Tory, Radical and Reformer, are almost equal objects of his invective: but, as the endearments of a courtezan are rendered worthless by the indiscriminate profusion with which she lavishes them, so neither do we pay much regard to the maledictions of a Timon or an Apemantus. We should say to Mr. Hazlitt,

> "Spare thy Athenian cradle, and those kin
> Which, in the bluster of thy wrath, must fall
> With those that have offended."

He has been accustomed to look with such intensity and acuteness on the vices of political parties, that MAN himself seems at last to have become an object of his contempt.

After having thus opened the case, we must call in evidence to establish the statement. Call in a Tory.

'His principle is to follow the leader; and this is the infallible rule to have numbers and success on your side, to be on the side of success and numbers. Power is the rock of his salvation; priestcraft is the second article of his implicit creed. He does not trouble himself to inquire which is the best form of government — but he knows that the reigning monarch is "the best of kings." He does not, like a fool, contest for modes of faith; but like a wise man, swears by that which is by law established. He has no principles himself, nor does he profess to have any, but will cut your throat for differing with any of his bigoted dogmas, or for objecting to any act of power that he supposes necessary to his interest. He will take his Bible-oath that black is white, and that whatever is, is right, if it is for his convenience. He is for having a slice in the loan, a share in a borough, a situation in the church or state, or for standing well with those who have. He is not for empty speculations, but for full pockets. He is for having plenty of beef and pudding, a good coat to his back, a good house over his head, and for cutting a respectable figure in the world. He is *Epicuri de grege porcus* — not a man but a beast.

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He is styed in his prejudices — he wallows in the mire of his senses — he cannot get beyond the trough of his sordid appetites, whether it is of gold or wood. Truth and falsehood are, to him, something to buy and sell; principle and conscience, something to eat and drink. He tramples on the plea of humanity, and lives, like a caterpillar, on the decay of public good. Beast as he is, he knows that the King is the fountain of honour, that there are good things to be had in the Church, treats the cloth with respect, bows to a magistrate, lies to the tax-gatherer, nicknames the Reformers, and "blesses the Regent and the Duke of York."'

Now call in a Whig:

'A Whig is properly what is called a Trimmer — that is, a coward to both sides of a question, who dare not be a knave nor an honest man, but is a sort of whiffling, shuffling, cunning, silly, contemptible, unmeaning negation of the two. He is a poor purblind creature, who halts between two opinions, and complains that he cannot get any two people to think alike. He is a cloak for corruption, and a mar-plot to freedom. He will neither do any thing himself, nor let any one else do it. He is on bad terms with the Government, and not on good ones with the people. He is an impertinence and a contradiction in the state. If he has a casting weight, for fear of overdoing the mark, he throws it into the wrong scale. He is a person of equally feeble understanding and passions. He has some notion of what is right, just enough to hinder him from pursuing his own interest: he has selfish and worldly prudence enough, not to let him embark in any bold or decided measure for the advancement of truth and justice. He is afraid of his own conscience,' &c. &c.

A Reformer, we are told, is necessarily and naturally a Marplot; for, in the first place, 'he does not very well know what he would *be at;* secondly, if he did, he does not care very much about it; and, thirdly, he is governed habitually by a spirit of contradiction, and is always wise beyond what is practicable.' Notwithstanding this indifferentism, curiously attributed to a character which has never before been charged with any thing like inactivity, it is acknowleged that the first principle of a Reformer's mind is the supremacy of conscience and the independent right of private judgment; and the recognition of these latter qualities might have induced us to suppose that Mr. Hazlitt had ranked himself as a Reformer, had he not in the next page described a patriot of this stamp as

'Really indifferent about every thing but what he cannot have; instead of making his option between two things, a good or an evil, within his reach, our exquisite Sir sets up a third thing as the object of his choice, with some impossible condition annexed to it, — to

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— to dream, to talk, to write, to be meddlesome and troublesome about, to serve him for a topic of captious discontent or vague declamation, and which if he saw any hopes of cordial agreement or practical co-operation to carry it into effect, he would instantly contrive to mar, and split it into a thousand fractions, doubts, and scruples, to make it an impossibility for any thing ever to be done for the good of mankind, which is merely the plaything of his theoretical imbecility and active impertinence! The goddess of his idolatry is and will always remain a cloud, instead of a Juno. One of these virtuosos, these Nicolas Gimcracks of Reform, full of intolerable and vain conceit, sits smiling in the baby-house of his imagination, "pleased with a feather, tickled with a straw," trimming the balance of power in the looking-glass of his own self-complacency,' &c. &c.

To close the case on the part of the prosecution, after having given the evidence of Whig, Tory, and Reformer, we shall put into the witness-box MAN himself.

'Man is a toad-eating animal. The admiration of power in others is as common to man as the love of it in himself: the one makes him a tyrant, the other a slave. It is not he alone, who wears the golden crown, that is proud of it: the wretch who pines in a dungeon, and in chains, is dazzled with it; and if he could but shake off his own fetters, would care but little about the wretches whom he left behind him, so that he might have an opportunity, on being set free himself, of gazing at this glittering gew-gaw "on some high holiday of once a year." The slave, who has no other hope or consolation, clings to the apparition of royal magnificence, which insults his misery and his despair; stares through the hollow eyes of famine at the insolence of pride and luxury which has occasioned it, and hugs his chains the closer, because he has nothing else left. The French, under the old regime, made the glory of their *Grand Monarque* a set-off against rags and hunger, equally satisfied with *shows* or *bread;* and the poor Spaniard, delivered from temporary to permanent oppression, looks up once more with pious awe, to the time-hallowed towers of the Holy Inquisition. As the herd of mankind are stripped of every thing, in body and mind, so are they thankful for what is left; as is the desolation of their hearts and the wreck of their little all, so is the pomp and pride which is built upon their ruin, and their fawning admiration of it.'

Now, is not this bordering very closely on misanthropy? and are we not justified in saying of such sweeping invective, flowing as it may in melodious periods, that from discord to discord, rather than "from harmony to harmony,

"Through all the compass of the notes it ran,
The diapason closing full on MAN?"

Yet the welfare of MAN is the object of Mr. Hazlitt's anxious and sleepless solicitude! 'I have a hatred of tyranny, and

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and a contempt for its tools,' says he: — but MAN, we see, is not worth his anxiety and solicitude. If he be such a grovelling and degraded wretch as he is here represented, let him hug his chains; if they are removed from him, he will throw them at the head of his liberator, and serve him right for his folly. Mr. H., however, is like some testy husbands who will suffer nobody to quarrel with their wives but themselves: nay, if a third person attempts to separate them in the very heat of cuffs, slaps, and scratches, the enraged parties will for the moment suspend their hostilities against each other, and unite to fall on the luckless pacificator. Thus, when Burke calls us a Swinish Multitude, and contemptuously defines the people to be "any faction that at any time can get the power of the sword into its hands;" when any renegado poet or cold-blooded orator calumniates the mass of the people, or sports with the sufferings of individuals; then does the indignation of Mr. Hazlitt rise, then does he launch the thunder of his eloquence at the daring and insolent offenders, then does he assert the dignity of MAN, and the nobleness of his nature! — It has been asked, where are we to find the intellect of the people? 'Why, all the intellect that ever was is theirs,' says Mr. Hazlitt, fired with the insolence of the question. All the greatest poets, sages, heroes, are ours originally, and by right. — Lord Bacon was surely a great man? yes: but not because he was a lord: there is nothing of hereditary growth but pride and prejudice.

'Even Burke was one of the people, and would have remained with the people to the last, if there had been no court-side for him to go over to. The King gave him his pension, not his understanding or his eloquence. It would have been better for him and for mankind if he had kept to his principles, and gone without his pension. It is thus that the tide of power, constantly setting in against the people, swallows up natural genius and acquired knowledge in the vortex of corruption, and then they reproach us with our want of leaders of weight and influence, to stem the torrent. All that has ever been done for society has, however, been done for it by this intellect, before it was cheapened to be a cat's paw of divine right. All discoveries and all improvements in arts, in science, in legislation, in civilization, in every thing dear and valuable to the heart of man, have been made by this intellect — all the triumphs of human genius over the rudest barbarism, the darkest ignorance, the grossest and most inhuman superstition, the most unmitigated and remorseless tyranny, have been gained for themselves by the people. Great kings, great lawgivers, great founders, and great reformers of religion, have almost all arisen from among the people.'

An irrepressible vehemence pervades the language of Mr. Hazlitt, which, when applied to *persons*, even in their political

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cal capacity as statesmen, orators, or writers, is calculated to alienate and irritate. Reasoning and argument, thus uncourteously *enforced*, lose half their powers of conviction, by disdainfully rejecting all the adventitious aid of concilation and persuasion. The taste of the public has, of late years, been accustomed to very high stimulants: no plain wholesome food will go down; and every thing must be hashed and stewed with some "*sauce piquante*," which, however delicious to one palate, may be very offensive and disgusting to another. Mr. Hazlitt should not cater for such pampered appetites: he is far above the employment, and let him leave it to his inferiors. His criticisms on our dramatic and poetic writers are delightful; evincing a perception and enjoyment of those minor beauties and almost latent graces of composition, which are lost on the dull organs of common observers. We had much rather, therefore, see him exercising his faculties on the *belles lettres* than on politics:—he has not temper enough for the latter. When he draws the characters of Lord Chatham, Mr. Burke, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Pitt, and examines their different styles of oratory, "Richard is himself again;" and Mr. Hazlitt's powers of discrimination on such subjects are fully displayed. We can, however, afford room for only a short specimen. It would have been easy to select many more brilliant passages than the following, but it has antithetic terseness and truth which are very striking:

'I am not going to make an idle panegyric on Burke (he has no need of it); but I cannot help looking upon him as the chief boast and ornament of the English House of Commons. What has been said of him is, I think, strictly true, that "he was the most eloquent man of his time: his wisdom was greater than his eloquence." The only public man that in my opinion can be put in any competition with him, is Lord Chatham: and he moved in a sphere so very remote, that it is almost impossible to compare them. But though it would perhaps be difficult to determine which of them excelled most in his particular way, there is nothing in the world more easy than to point out in what their peculiar excellences consisted. They were in every respect the reverse of each other. Chatham's eloquence was popular: his wisdom was altogether plain and practical. Burke's eloquence was that of the poet; of the man of high and unbounded fancy: his wisdom was profound and contemplative. Chatham's eloquence was calculated to make men *act*; Burke's was calculated to make them *think*. Chatham could have roused the fury of a multitude, and wielded their physical energy as he pleased: Burke's eloquence carried conviction into the mind of the retired and lonely student, opened the recesses of the human breast, and lighted up the face of nature around him. Chatham supplied his hearers with motives to immediate action: Burke furnished them with *reasons* for action which might have little effect upon them at the time,

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time, but for which they would be the wiser and better all their lives after. In research, in originality, in variety of knowledge, in richness of invention, in depth and comprehension of mind, Burke had as much the advantage of Lord Chatham as he was excelled by him in plain common sense, in strong feeling, in steadiness of purpose, in vehemence, in warmth, in enthusiasm, and energy of mind. Burke was the man of genius, of fine sense, and subtle reasoning; Chatham was a man of clear understanding, of strong sense, and violent passions. Burke's mind was satisfied with speculation: Chatham's was essentially *active*: it could not rest without an object. The power which governed Burke's mind was his Imagination; that which gave its impetus to Chatham's was Will. The one was almost the creature of pure intellect, the other of physical temperament.'

Of Mr. Fox, he observes, 'it is difficult to write a character without running into insipidity or extravagance; and the reason of this is, there are no splendid contrasts, no striking irregularities, no curious distinctions to work upon; no "jutting frieze, buttress, nor coigne of 'vantage," for the imagination to take hold of. It was a plain marble slab, inscribed in plain legible characters, without hieroglyphics or carving. The whole of his character may be summed up in two words, strength and simplicity.' In comparing the general qualities of the eloquence of Lord Chatham and Mr. Fox, the author would trace not only the points of difference but the points of resemblance to the characteristic qualities of their minds. They were both 'distinguished by a kind of plain, downright, common sense, and by the vehemence of their manner. But still there is a great difference between them in both these respects. Fox in his opinions was governed by facts; Chatham was more influenced by the feelings of others respecting those facts, and appealed to popular prejudice, while Fox appealed to the practical reason of mankind.' Their impetuosity, likewise, he considers to have arisen from very different feelings. 'In Chatham it was pride, passion, self-will, impatience of controul, and a determination to have his own way, and carry every thing before him. In Fox it was pure good nature, a sincere love of truth, an ardent attachment to what he conceived to be right, an anxious concern for the welfare and liberties of mankind.'

'Chatham resented any attack made upon the cause of liberty, of which he was the avowed champion, as an indignity offered to himself. Fox felt it as a stain upon the honour of his country, and as an injury to the rights of his fellow-citizens. The one was swayed by his own passions and purposes, with very little regard to the consequences; the sensibility of the other was roused, and his passions kindled into a generous flame, by a real interest in what-

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whatever related to the welfare of mankind, and by an intense and earnest contemplation of the consequences of the measures he opposed. It was this union of the zeal of the patriot with the enlightened knowledge of the statesman, that gave to the eloquence of Fox its more than mortal energy; that warmed, expanded, penetrated every bosom. He relied on the force of truth and nature alone; the refinements of philosophy, the pomp and pageantry of the imagination were forgotten, or seemed light and frivolous; the fate of nations, the welfare of millions, hung suspended as he spoke; a torrent of manly eloquence poured from his heart, bore down every thing in its course, and surprised into a momentary sense of human feeling the breathing corpses, the wire-moved puppets, the stuffed figures, the flexible machinery, the "deaf and dumb things" of a court.'

In giving our opinion that Mr. Hazlitt's fame must repose on his critical rather than his political lucubrations, we shall be sorry if he thinks that we are insensible to the impudent and hypocritical sophistries by which corruption is protected. We participate with him in all his hatred of tyranny and contempt for its tools, whatever station in life they occupy, and with whatever rank or title they are decorated and disgraced: but we have no relish for diffuse, personal, and declamatory invective, and of this we have too much in the volume before us. The writer's command of language is very great, and he is sometimes apt to exercise his imperial power like other potentates, uncontrouled by judgment or discretion. We should be disposed to strike out a few passages from his examination of Mr. Malthus's Doctrines on Population, which is exceedingly acute; he has exposed 'the swaggering paradox,' and laid bare its inconsistencies and absurdities: but he is a little *too* cavalier, *too* contemptuous, *too* gross. It is by far the closest piece of reasoning in the whole volume, and is therefore the best political article: but the reasoning would have lost nothing of its force,—nay perhaps it might have gained something of efficacy,—had the author strictly confined himself to the theory of Mr. Malthus, with its legitimate inferences and consequences, and refrained from that sin which so easily besets him, the indulgence of invective. We shall be glad, however, to renew our acquaintance with Mr. Hazlitt: who seems, in many respects,

> "a worthy fellow,
> Albeit he comes on angry purpose now."

ART.

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ART. IV. *The History of Greenland:* including an Account of the Mission carried on by the United Brethren in that Country. From the German of David Crantz. With a Continuation to the present Time; illustrative Notes; and an Appendix, containing a Sketch of the Mission of the Brethren in Labrador. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

So far back as the year 1767, and in our thirty-sixth volume, Old Series, p. 331., we shortly noticed the first edition of this singular performance; and we then took occasion to remark that, if faithfully abridged, and purged of its fanatical phraseology, it might experience a favourable reception from the public. The present editors, who date from Fulneck School, and may therefore be fairly presumed to be of the Moravian persuasion, profess to have retrenched numerous unimportant details and repetitions, to have removed masses of heavy narrative, and to have re-moulded the style; adopting also a more methodical arrangement of the materials, and greatly condensing the missionary annals.

'In addition,' they say, 'to Crantz's own continuation of several years of the narration, which has not appeared in English, the sources resorted to for the sequel of the history have been the continuations of the History of the Brethren, in German, and the periodical accounts. Nor should we omit to mention the able and judicious "*Historical Sketches of the Brethren's Missions,*" by the Rev. J. Holmes, to which the editors have considerable obligations in this part of their labours. With respect to the notes, it may be sufficient to observe, that they have been added either to explain what appeared imperfect and unsatisfactory in the original, or to illustrate various interesting subjects. The insertion of such notes as touch upon debateable ground will, it is hoped, be construed charitably, as they are not intended for the purpose of controversy, but of illustration.'

A large portion of the first volume is devoted to a geographical and topographical description of those parts of Greenland which had been explored when the author published his history, and to an account of the character, manners, and customs of the inhabitants. The series of local notices is still sufficiently minute and uninviting, and (as admitted in one of the notes) not remarkable for accuracy; besides that it is interspersed with various memoranda of missionary settlements, which should have been reserved for the second volume. The observations on ice-bergs, field-ice, drift-wood, the air, seasons, &c. are somewhat more attractive: but they are now, in a great measure, superseded by the more ample and philosophical reports of Captain Ross and Mr. Scoresby. The enumeration of natural objects, though vague, and unsatis-

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factory to a nomenclaturist of the present day, manifests considerable diligence of observation; especially when we reflect on the period in which it was consigned to writing, and on the few facilities afforded to the author for systematizing his researches. A more intelligible and precise view of the mineralogy of the country than the text supplies is exhibited in a note, which is a transcript of part of the article *Greenland*, by Sir Charles Giesecké, inserted in the Edinburgh Encyclopædia. In another note, we are furnished with a list of 150 plants, from the pen of Dr. D. J. C. Schreber, to whom Crantz communicated his herbarium. Were our Board of Agriculture and our Horticultural Societies transferred to this *land of verdure*, their zeal and ingenuity would be rapidly *chilled.*

'Several trials have been made to grow oats and barley. They send up as high a blade as in other countries, but seldom come into ear, and are, in the very warmest situations, prevented from ripening by the night frosts.

'The gardens cannot be very productive, as no seed can be sown till the middle of June. Even then the soil is frozen at a little depth below the surface, and in September the frost recommences. Every thing must then be taken out of the earth, and laid up to keep, except chives, which will endure the winter. Salad and cabbage will not bear transplanting, and remain very small. Radishes thrive as well as in Europe. The black radishes are small, and turnips seldom exceed a pigeon's egg in size, but they may be eaten with greens, and have an excellent taste. This is all that can be reared in the gardens, nor will they produce even this, unless they are screened from the north wind and the spray of the sea-water.'

That the soil, at great depths under the sea, may be much diversified, is a very reasonable supposition: but it would require the easy faith of our worthy missionary to believe, that it is the receptacle not only of grass but of large trees. His notices of the animals which were, in his day, known to inhabit Greenland, are in course very circumscribed; and, since the publication of more recent accounts, they are deprived of even the semblance of novelty: but, when we recollect the circumstances under which they were sent to the press, we may allow that they bespeak considerable sagacity, and a mind superior to some of the prejudices of the times. He has also made a liberal use of the writings of Anderson and Pottoppidan: yet we need not wonder that, with all his care, he has fallen into some mistakes. Thus we suspect that he takes for granted the poisonous nature of a small spider, to which he alludes. At page 88. (vol. i.) he asserts, without qualification, that the salmon-trout is the only river-fish

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known in the country: but the genuine salmon makes its appearance in the next sentence, and the Alpine trout shortly afterward. We do not imagine either the author or his editors to be correct with regard to the *Capelin*; at least, that of Newfoundland is neither a *Clupea* nor a *Salmo*, but the *Gadus minutus*. We are not surprized that Mr. Crantz gave credence to the alleged stated migrations of the herring, which Anderson, Pennant, and others, have circumstantially detailed: but his editors might have informed his readers that this far-famed movement has no foundation in fact. The Ray, *Raia clavata*, is represented as having the power of turning its eyes inwards, so as to see through the mouth what is passing under it. In one paragraph, too, we are assured that this fish has only two small fins underneath, while in the next the chine becomes winged with cartilaginous fins, half a yard long. — We have no authentic evidence of the common whale ever attaining to 200 feet, or of its even approaching to such dimensions. — In corroboration of the existence of the sea-snake, the editors might have adduced the testimony of Dr. Barclay, of Edinburgh, and of certain American observers, of which we announced the result some time ago.

The picture of the character, customs, and domestic manners of the Greenlanders is drawn in a simple, and, we doubt not, in a very faithful style. We need scarcely recall its prominent features: but we cannot refrain from remarking that it exhibits a singular combination of cleanly and disgustingly dirty habits; as also an unexpected example of the happy effects of the indulgence of children, since the Greenland boy, who is never contradicted nor chastized, usually becomes a more moral being than one who is born and bred in a civilized country. The author, moreover, apprizes us of a remarkable physiological fact, without pretending to account for it; viz. that a mother usually goes on with her ordinary occupations till a few hours before child-birth, and resumes them immediately after that event. This mitigation of the antient curse cannot, in the present instance, be ascribed to the *heat of the climate*, but may possibly be traced to the hardy and laborious mode of life to which the women of Greenland are condemned. — Of their cookery, we may take the following samples: — ' A merchant, at a banquet to which he was invited, with several respectable Greenlanders, counted the following dishes: Dried herrings; dried seals' flesh; the same boiled; half raw or putrid seals' flesh, called *mikiak*; boiled awks; part of a whale's tail in a half putrid state, which was considered as the principal dish; dried

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salmon; dried rein-deer venison; preserves of crowberries, mixed with the chyle from the maw of the rein-deer; and, lastly, the same enriched with train oil.' — Their mode of duelling is a satire on Christian communities:

'The most remarkable circumstance is, that they even decide their quarrels by a match of singing and dancing, which they call the *Singing-Combat.* If a Greenlander thinks himself aggrieved by another, he discovers no symptom of revengeful designs, anger, or vexation, but he composes a satirical poem, which he recites with singing and dancing, in the presence of his domestics, and particularly the female part of his family, till they know it by rote. He then, in the face of the whole country, challenges his antagonist to a satirical duel. The latter appears at the appointed place, and both parties enter the lists. The complainant begins to sing his satire dancing to the beat of the drum, and cheered by the echoing Amna ajah of his partisans, who join in every line, while he repeats so many ludicrous stories of which his adversary is the subject, that the auditors cannot forbear laughing. When he has finished, the respondent steps forth, and retorts the accusation, amidst the plaudits of his party, by a similar string of lampoons. The accuser renews the assault, and is again rebuffed; and this continues till one of the competitors is weary. He who has the last word wins the trial, and obtains thenceforward a reputable name. An opportunity is here offered of telling very plain and cutting truths, but there must be no mixture of rudeness or passion. The assembled spectators decide the victory, and the parties are in future the best friends.

'This contest is seldom attended by any disorderly conduct, except that a man who is well seconded sometimes carries off a woman whom he wishes to marry. It serves a higher purpose than mere diversion. It is an excellent opportunity for putting immorality to the blush, and cherishing virtuous principles; for reminding debtors of the duty of repayment; for branding falsehood and detraction with infamy; for punishing fraud and injustice; and, most of all, for overwhelming adultery with its merited contempt. Nothing so effectually restrains a Greenlander from vice, as the dread of public disgrace. And this pleasant way of revenge even prevents many from wreaking their malice in acts of violence or bloodshed. Still it is easy to see that the whole affair depends upon volubility of tongue; and the most celebrated satirists and moral philosophers of the Greenlanders, are generally the most profligate in their lives.'

Still the moral portrait of this people has its dark side; and their humanity is grossly at fault when it comes in competition with selfish motives. Their superstitious tenets, too, their faith in their *angekoks*, or sorcerers, and their confused and degrading notions concerning superior beings, are alike absurd and deplorable. Their language, notwithstanding its consonantal and guttural harshness, exhibits a very copious

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vocabulary, and a structure which seems to bespeak its connection with a people who had made considerable advances in the arts of life. Strangers acquire it with the greatest difficulty, and are never capable of expressing themselves in it with precision and readiness. Both nouns and verbs have a singular, dual, and plural form; and the suffixes and affixes exceed in number those of the Hebrew. 'There are more than a hundred methods of compounding verbs with four, five, or six members.' — This complexity of mechanism in the organization of the language reminds us of the dialects of certain tribes of North American Indians, which may perhaps have a common origin with those of the Esquimaux and Greenlanders. Though the latter are ignorant of writing, and incapable of computing beyond twenty, they are expert genealogists; and they divide their seasons and days according to certain appearances of external nature. Their diseases, which are not numerous, are treated according to a very rude system of practice; and they have a greater horror than most savages at the thought of death. Their funeral rites, which partake of the barbarity of their superstitious notions, are described towards the close of the third book. 'A sucking babe which has lost its mother, and has no one else to nurse it, is soon after buried alive by the desperate father, when he can no longer endure the sight of its misery. The heart-rending anguish of this task must be left for the imagination to conceive. A stranger, without friends and relatives, is generally suffered to lie unburied.'

The early annals of this people are too doubtful or too unimportant to detain us; and we purposely abstain from any analysis of the recitals of the Moravian missions, which occupy the second volume of the present work, because they teem with repetitions of similar incidents. While, also, they breathe the spirit of well-meaning piety, and attest the numerous hardships, privations, and dangers which the Brethren cheerfully encountered, they present to our contemplation very contracted views of the Christian system, as if its essence consisted in the workings of a heated and untutored imagination.

ART. V. *Winter Evening Tales*, collected among the Cottagers in the South of Scotland. By James Hogg, Author of "The Queen's Wake," &c. 12mo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Whittakers. 1820.

WHETHER the title of this amusing work may be taken literally, and the stories of which it consists were really traditions collected by Mr. Hogg, or whether they are the

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original productions of his fancy, we do not know: but they are unimportant questions. The tales themselves are well calculated for their purpose, if we may judge from their effect on us; for they have stolen away several heavy hours, and, while we perused them, held us in fixed and interested suspense. They contain, moreover, with the exception of Basil Lee, nothing that can give offence to the best regulated modesty. The tale which we have exempted from this commendation is the worst in the collection: yet it is easy and flowing, and in various parts of it reminds us of the singular powers of the most astonishing narrator in British literature, the celebrated Daniel Defoe; who was gifted with the rare faculty of representing the most ordinary incidents in colours so true to nature and probability, that it is wholly impossible to suspect the adventures of Robinson Crusoe, or the memoirs of Colonel Jack, to be any thing but the plainest and most simple recitals of real occurrences. Such was the perfection of his art, that it lies perfectly concealed through almost all his productions.

The two volumes before us are ushered into the world without the aid of the common trick and artifice of modern publication; and they are printed in a small compass, not spun out by those typographical *yawns* and *hiatuses* which are of such excellent service to the book-makers of the present day: among whom the chapter stops short before a gulf of unprinted space, and the numerical titles and mottoes fill more than half of the following page. Though, however, these tales are brought into life without the usual artifices of literary midwifery, he who wishes to have a faithful picture of the manners and characters of the peasantry, and the middle orders, of the south of Scotland, will find them here depictured to the life by no ordinary pencil. Mr. Hogg's knowlege of the superstitions of that part of the country is minute and detailed, and the fruit of personal observation; not seen, as that of an eminent artist in this line, so much through what Dryden calls "the spectacles of books," as gleaned by actual and living experience. Occasional vulgarisms and Scoticisms are betrayed in the diction, and a few false concords and other grammatical offences are observable: but to these venial errors much indulgence is due; and in a future edition, to which we hope the book will reach, we trust that a diligent revisal will enable the author to remove such blemishes. We must bestow also a thrifty commendation on the poetical narratives: wishing, in spite of the poetical repute already acquired by Mr. Hogg, that he had adhered in these tales to simple prose.

We

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We have not room for much extract: but it would be injustice not to give our readers a part of the description, from a tale intitled 'The Shepherd's Calendar,' of a memorable storm which, on the 24th of January, 1794, fell with dreadful violence on that division of the south of Scotland which lies between Crawford-muir and the Border. The picture seems in all its traits to be exact to nature.

'On my way home, I called at a place named the Hope-house, to see a maternal uncle, whom I loved; he was angry when he saw me, and said it was not like a prudent lad to be running up and down the country in such weather, and at such a season; and urged me to make haste home, for it would be a drift before the morn. He accompanied me to the top of the height called the Black Gate-head, and on parting, he shook his head, and said, "Ah! it is a dangerous looking day! In troth I'm amaist fear'd to look at it;" I said I would not mind it, if any one knew from what quarter the storm would arise; but we might, in all likelihood, gather our sheep to the place where they would be most exposed to danger. He bade me keep a good look out all the way home, and wherever I observed the first opening through the rime, to be assured the wind would rise directly from that point. —

'I went to my bed in the byre loft, where I slept with a neighbour shepherd, named Borthwick; but though fatigued with walking through the snow, I could not close an eye, so that I heard the first burst of the storm, which commenced between one and two, with a fury that no one can conceive who does not remember of it. Besides, the place where I lived being exposed to two or three gathered winds, as they are called by shepherds, the storm raged there with redoubled ferocity. It began all at once, with such a tremendous roar, that I imagined it was a peal of thunder, until I felt the house trembling to its foundation. In a few minutes I went and thrust my naked arm through a hole in the roof, in order, if possible, to ascertain what was going on without, for not a ray of light could I see. I could not then, nor can I yet, express my astonishment. So completely was the air overloaded with falling and driving snow, that but for the force of the wind, I felt as if I had thrust my arm into a wreath of snow. I deemed it a judgment sent from Heaven upon us, and lay down again in my bed, trembling with agitation. I lay still for about an hour, in hopes that it might prove only a temporary hurricane; but, hearing no abatement of its fury, I awakened Borthwick, and bade him get up, for it was come on such a night or morning, as never blew from the heavens. He was not long in obeying, for as soon as he heard the turmoil, he started from his bed, and in one minute, throwing on his clothes, he hasted down the ladder, and opened the door, where he stood for a good while, uttering exclamations of astonishment. The door where he stood was not above fourteen yards from the door of the dwelling-house, but a wreath was already amassed between them, as high as the walls of the house — and in trying to get round or through this, Borthwick lost himself,

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self, and could neither find the house nor his way back to the byre, and about six minutes after, I heard him calling my name, in a shrill desperate tone of voice, at which I could not refrain from laughing immoderately, notwithstanding the dismal prospect that lay before us; for I heard, from his cries, where he was. He had tried to make his way over the top of a large dunghill, but going to the wrong side, had fallen over, and wrestled long among snow, quite over the head. I did not think proper to move to his assistance, but lay still, and shortly after, heard him shouting at the kitchen door for instant admittance; still I kept my bed for about three quarters of an hour longer; and then, on reaching the house with much difficulty, found our master, the ploughman, Borthwick, and the two servant maids, sitting round the kitchen fire, with looks of dismay, I may almost say despair. We all agreed at once, that the sooner we were able to reach the sheep, the better chance we had to save a remnant; and as there were eight hundred excellent ewes, all in one lot, but a long way distant, and the most valuable lot of any on the farm, we resolved to make a bold effort to reach them. Our master made family worship, a duty he never neglected; but that morning, the manner in which we manifested our trust and confidence in Heaven, was particularly affecting. We took our breakfast — stuffed our pockets with bread and cheese — sewed our plaids around us — tied down our hats with napkins coming below our chins — and each taking a strong staff in his hand, we set out on the attempt.

'No sooner was the door closed behind us than we lost sight of each other — seeing there was none — it was impossible for a man to see his hand held up before him, and it was still two hours till day. We had no means of keeping together but by following to one another's voices, nor of working our way save by groping with our staves before us. It soon appeared to me a hopeless concern, for, ere ever we got clear of the houses and haystacks, we had to roll ourselves over two or three wreaths which it was impossible to wade through; and all the while the wind and drift were so violent, that every three or four minutes we were obliged to hold our faces down between our knees to recover our breath.

'We soon got into an eddying wind that was altogether insufferable, and, at the same time, we were struggling among snow so deep, that our progress in the way we purposed going was indeed very equivocal, for we had, by this time, lost all idea of east, west, north, or south. Still we were as busy as men determined on a business could be, and persevered on we knew not whither, sometimes rolling over the snow, and sometimes weltering in it to the chin. The following instance of our successful exertions marks our progress to a tittle. There was an inclosure around the house to the westward, which we denominated *the park*, as is customary in Scotland. When we went away, we calculated that it was two hours until day — the park did not extend above 300 yards — and we were still engaged in that *park* when day-light appeared.

'When we got free of the park, we also got free of the eddy of the wind — it was now straight in our faces — we went in a line

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line before each other, and changed places every three or four minutes, and at length, after great fatigue, we reached a long ridge of a hill, where the snow was thinner, having been blown off it by the force of the wind, and by this time we had hopes of reaching within a short space of the ewes, which were still a mile and a half distant. Our master had taken the lead; I was next him, and soon began to suspect, from the depth of the snow, that he was leading us quite wrong, but as we always trusted implicitly to him that was foremost for the time, I said nothing for a good while, until satisfied that we were going in a direction very nearly right opposite to that we intended. I then tried to expostulate with him, but he did not seem to understand what I said, and, on getting a glimpse of his countenance, I perceived that it was quite altered. Not to alarm the others, nor even himself, I said I was becoming terribly fatigued, and proposed that we should lean on the snow and take each a mouthful of whisky (for I had brought a small bottle in my pocket for fear of the worst), and a bite of bread and cheese. This was unanimously agreed to, and I noted that he swallowed the spirits rather eagerly, a thing not usual with him, and when he tried to eat, it was long before he could swallow any thing. I was convinced that he would fail altogether, but, as it would have been easier to have got him to the shepherd's house before than home again, I made no proposal for him to return. On the contrary, I said if they would trust themselves entirely to me, I would engage to lead them to the ewes without going a foot out of the way — the other two agreed to it, and acknowledged that they knew not where they were, but he never opened his mouth, nor did he speak a word for two hours thereafter. It had only been a temporary exhaustion, however; for after that he recovered, and wrought till night as well as any of us, though he never could recollect a single circumstance that occurred during that part of our way, nor a word that was said, nor of having got any refreshment whatever.'

The labours of this party were almost entirely successful: but the loss both of flocks and of their shepherds throughout the country was frightful.

In conclusion, we may add that 'the Love-adventures of Mr. George Cochrane' contain an interesting record of a singular Scotish custom, namely, that of nocturnal wooing. — Some whispers have been circulated respecting the identity of the author with the said Mr. Cochrane.

ART. VI. *Poems*, by Bernard Barton. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Harvey and Darton. 1820.

THE present æra will form by no means an insignificant chapter in the history of our literature, and of our poetry in particular. The elements of their constitutional and national character are still fresh and vigorous, though not manifesting

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festing the same surprizing phænomena of gigantic power, and vivid nature, which attended their first display. We behold nothing, indeed, of the creations of Shakspeare, of the profuse richness of combination and picturesque drawings of Spenser, nor of the majesty and sustained efforts of Milton: — but the tone and spirit of our literature, as far as they extend, continue to partake of the original character which distinguished a former and a greater age. We are, perhaps, like the degenerate offspring of a gigantic and warlike race: we have not "the thews and sinews" that our fathers had: but their spirit is with us still. We cannot cope with the beings of an intellectual and moral world as successfully as they did: nor extort from them the great truths and hidden mysteries of their nature, by searching the deep recesses of their unapparent world, and like Alexander, seizing the Pythian priestess by the hair, drag her to the tripod, and snatch the reluctant secrets from the bosom of fate itself. We cannot do this: but our poetical ancestors could. Power is not easily acquired, and this is the most difficult and terrible of all. We do not *know*, but we can *imagine* what it costs the aspirant to obtain it; and long and arduous must be the struggle which he maintains, for great is the triumph when achieved. There is something in the possession of this gift which more nearly resembles those of the magician than any thing that we know; and, when once this is at our command, it would appear that all inferior spirits "do our bidding," and come and go at our pleasure.

Though, however, our modern poets cannot exercise the same authority over the regions of imagination and reality which their predecessors could display, they still hear the whispers of "divine things," and receive tokens from the distant and shadowy scenes in which they once ruled and revelled. It is this inheritance of national thought and feeling, this participation in the spirit of the past, which constitutes in its degree the greater or the less value of the poetic character among every people. The French possess the materials of nationality, but have made comparatively little use of them: indeed, with the exception of the "*Henriade*," they have scarcely any thing. Their tragedies are drawn from Greek, Roman, or Spanish stories: their light and erotic poems are also imitations of foreign models: their descriptive and idyllic works are taken from ours; and their memoirs in prose, and their epistles both in prose and verse, are the only species which they have genuine. The Spaniards are the most rich of any nation in traditionary works, and literary monuments peculiar to a people. In wealth of *national antiquity*,

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tiquity, our English literature may fairly be said to rank the next; and then the German.

In the second article of this Number, we have made a report of a volume of poems by one of *the Society of Friends*; who, as we there observed, have not been frequent visitors of the Parnassian mount; and the production now before us is another effort of the Quaker-muse. If we cannot compliment Mr. Barton on being naturally a great poet, he possesses feeling, has long studied his art, and has attained to a point of merit which we did not anticipate. We observe, however, great inequality in his compositions; and we are sorry that he has *re*-published several pieces which can do him no credit when compared with his more recent compositions. A less portion with a finer quality of "the stuff" would have satisfied us in this volume. Not only in style and versification, but in the very "heart and core" of his poetry, an inconsistency of genius is shewn, sufficient almost to create a doubt of the identity of hand: but we presume that the inferiority is to be attributed to a more raw and untutored period, as well as to the unlucky moments of composition which every poet experiences. Certain it is, that the more successful pieces bear too small a proportion to the bulk of the volume; though in genuine feeling, and truth of conception, they go far to redeem the superfluity of sing-song. The lines 'To the Gallic Eagle' will give us the best criterion for judging of the reach of Mr. Barton's poetic powers.

'*To the Gallic Eagle.*

'Fame's favourite minion!
The theme of her story;
How quailed is thy pinion,
How sullied its glory:

'Where blood flowed like water,
Exulting it bore thee! —
Destruction and slaughter
Behind and before thee.

'Where glory was blushing,
Thy flight was the fleetest;
Where death's sleep was hushing,
Thy slumber was sweetest.

'When broad swords were clashing,
Thy cry was the loudest;
When deep they were gashing,
Thy plume was the proudest.

'But, triumph is over;
No longer victorious,
No more shalt thou hover
Destructively glorious!

'Far

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'Far from the battle's shock,
Fate has fast bound thee;
Chained to the rugged rock,
Waves warring round thee.

'Instead of the trumpet's sound,
Sea-birds are shrieking;
Hoarse on thy ramparts' bound,
Billows are breaking.

'The standards which led thee,
Are trampled and torn now;
The flatterers which fed thee,
Are turned into scorn now.

'For ensigns unfurling,
Like sun-beams in brightness,
Are crested waves curling,
Like snow-wreathes in whiteness.

'No sycophants mock thee,
With dreams of dominion;
But rude tempests rock thee,
And ruffle thy pinion.

'Thy last flight is taken,
Hope leaves thee for ever,
And victory shall waken
Thy proud spirit never!'

Freedom and boldness are manifested in these lines; and a lyric power is displayed by Mr. B. frequently with great effect. He can occasionally also strike the higher as well as the finer chords of our poetic frame. Of true pathos and delicacy of thought and expression, the following is an instance:

'The Ivy.— *Addressed to a Young Friend.*

'Dost thou not love, in the season of spring,
To twine thee a flowery wreath,
And to see the beautiful birch-tree fling
Its shade on the grass beneath?
Its glossy leaf and its silvery stem;
Oh! dost thou not love to look on them?

'And dost thou not love, when leaves are greenest,
And summer has just begun,
When in the silence of moonlight thou leanest,
Where glistening waters run,
To see by that gentle and peaceful beam,
The willow bend down to the sparkling stream?

'And oh! in a lovely autumnal day,
When leaves are changing before thee,
Do not nature's charms, as they slowly decay,
Shed their own mild influence o'er thee?

And

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And hast thou not felt, as thou stood'st to gaze,
The touching lesson such scene displays?

'It should be thus, at an age like thine;
And it has been thus with me;
When the freshness of feeling and heart were mine,
As they never more can be:
Yet think not I ask thee to pity my lot,
Perhaps I see beauty where thou dost not.

'Hast thou seen in winter's stormiest day,
The trunk of a blighted oak,
Not dead, but sinking in slow decay,
Beneath Time's resistless stroke,
Round which a luxuriant Ivy had grown,
And wreathed it with verdure, no longer its own?

'Perchance thou hast seen this sight, and then,
As I, at thy years might do,
Passed carelessly by, nor turned again
That scathed wreck to view:
But now I can draw from that mouldering tree,
Thoughts that are soothing and dear to me.

'O smile not! nor think it a worthless thing,
If it be with instruction fraught;
That which will closest and longest cling,
Is alone worth a serious thought!
Should aught be unlovely, which thus can shed
Grace on the dying, and leaves not the dead?

'Now in thy youth, beseech of *Him*
Who giveth, upbraiding not,
That his light in thy heart become not dim,
And his love be unforgot;
And thy God, in the darkest of days, will be
Greenness, and beauty, and strength to thee!'

Mr. B. appears to possess greater sensibility than imagination, and is more successful in descriptive and pathetic subjects than in the creations and combinations of intellect and fancy. In embodying his own feelings and reflections, and associating them with objects of external beauty, he is often very happy: but his powers of language and versification are unequal to the expression of his nobler sentiments, being often rather loose and rambling, and deficient in that ease and polish of style which denote the "master of his art." Another fault in the poetry of Mr. B. is a want of equal and sustained power; — a carelessness and prosaic turn of expression, which, with a little more study, might be avoided. * These are observable

* We advise him, also, to beware of the *all*urement of *all*iteration, to which many writers are such frequent victims. He should

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servable in his 'Recollections,' in 'Leiston Abbey,' and others of a similar description; which appear to owe their origin to the impulses of sudden and associated feelings, when the heart has too powerful an interest to obey the colder dictates of the judgment. These feelings occur to us in scenes which have formerly afforded us pleasure: they are secretly treasured in our memory; and they are again called into existence inspired with imagination and regret.

"*Quando per dilettanze, ovver per doglie,*
Che alcuna virtù nostra comprenda,
L'anima bene ad essa si raccoglie;
Par, ch' a nulla potenzia più intenda." DANTE.

In this spirit, we think, Mr. B. produced the beautiful little poem intitled 'A Dream;' with a part of which we shall conclude our extracts.

'Thou art not one of the living now;
And yet a form appears
At times before me, such as thou
In days of former years:
It rises to my spirit's sight,
In thoughts by day, in dreams by night.

'Nor can I choose but fondly bless
A shade, if shade it be,
Which, with such soft expressiveness,
Recalls one thought of thee:
I own it, in itself ideal,
Its influence o'er my heart is real.

'I grant that dreams are idle things,
Yet have I known a few,
To which my faithful memory clings;
They seemed so sweet and true,
That let who will the fault condemn,
It was a grief to wake from them.

'One such came lately in the hours
To nightly slumber due;
It pictured forth no fairy bowers
To fancy's raptured view;
It had not much of marvels strange,
Nor aught of wild, and frequent change:

---

should not by choice talk of *stemming* a *storm*, (see p. 102.); nor fancy that peculiar beauty or effect belongs to such a line as this: (p. 246.)

'But more *passionless*, *pensive*, and *pure* is thy sway.'

'But

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'But all seemed real! Aye! as much
As now the page I trace
Is palpable to sight and touch:
Then how could doubt have place?
Yet was I not from doubt exempt,
But asked myself if still I dreamt.

'I felt I did; but, spite of this,
Even thus in dreams to meet,
Had much, too much, of dearest bliss,
Though not enough to cheat:
I knew the vision might not stay,
And yet I blessed its transient sway.

'But oh! thy look! It was not one
That earthly features wear;
Nor was it aught to fear or shun,
As fancied spectres are:
Twas gentle, pure, and passionless,
Yet full of heavenly tenderness.

'One thing was strange: it seemed to me
We were not long alone;
But many more were circling thee,
Whom thou on earth had'st known:
Who seemed as greeting thy return
From some unknown, remote sojourn.'

To the religious opinions of Mr. B. we have already adverted; and surely not the strictest among his sect can make exceptions to poetry like that which he has here offered to us; which is written in the same spirit of humanity and peace that has long distinguished the efforts of our "Friends," in the cause of toleration, liberty, and reform.

ART. VII. *A Classical Tour through Italy and Sicily;* tending to illustrate some Districts which have not been described by Mr. Eustace in his Classical Tour. By Sir Richard Colt Hoare, Baronet. 4to. pp. 567. 2l. 2s. Boards. Mawman. 1819.

WE learn from the preface that Sir Richard Hoare performed a first expedition to the Continent previously to the year 1801, which was the date of Mr. Eustace's first tour; and that he followed the route marked out by the generality of his countrymen who travel; that is, he deviated but little from the line of march, in point either of place or of investigation. Having gained, however, a competent knowlege of the Italian to facilitate the intercourse of minds, he proposed to make a second tour in Italy, with the view of exploring

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places consecrated by the remoteness of the age in which they flourished, and of which the celebrity and the decay are concealed by a veil of mystery that we apprehend it belongs not to men of this day to draw aside. We allude to the antient settlements of the Etrurians; a people whose language, whose very alphabet, and whose history, except where it connects itself with Rome, have eluded all research, and given birth at most to ingenious hypotheses and accounts no more than barely probable. In this preface, also, Sir Richard passes a very handsome and well merited eulogy on Mr. Eustace; whose credibility one of our best informed travellers has attempted vainly to set aside; and whose style of writing has been made, with more acrimony than judgment, the subject of a sneer, rather than of any well-founded complaint.

Italy, for ever wasted, and for ever renewed by her own latent energies, — the country where, as Alfieri says, the "plant man grows stronger than elsewhere," — and, we may add, where the precautions to check his growth and unnerve his strength are more consistently pursued than in other countries, — Italy is yet only partially known; and, when we have added the present work to that of Mr. Eustace, still many large districts, especially to the east and south-east, from the antient Carfinium to the Iapygian promontory, remain nearly strangers to us. In his admiration of Mr. Eustace, we heartily join Sir Richard Hoare, for he brought into the field not only that candour and that peculiar turn of mind which are requisite to the traveller, but those endowments which are especially suited to a traveller in Italy. A Protestant is disposed to "fleer and scorn at the solemnities" of the Roman church: but, without being in danger of embracing her tenets, we may be thankful to any man who will convey to us the exact impressions which these solemn pomps make on the mind of a Catholic. Accustomed as the English are to see the Romish service performed only in little chapels, or rather closets, if they see it any where, they easily perceive the grosser parts, which a larger theatre and a more distant view would soften down and relieve from their seeming improprieties. A cathedral, space, multitude, gorgeousness of attire, and the solemn swell of many instruments, are necessary appendages of the Roman worship; which formed itself in the midst of all the illusions produced by all the arts, carried to their utmost perfection. To develope, therefore, the inspirations of Catholicism, where the temples as well as their worshippers are strictly Catholic, and where the size of the theatre gives due effect to the scene and to the action, a Protestant mind and Protestant pencil are in general totally incompe-

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competent. This, however, Mr. Eustace has done, and done in a style and language which we challenge his censors to surpass. — We have said that he was candid, and this in defiance of his unceasing persecution of the French name, which he never mentions but to vituperate. That he viewed with indignation the Vatican, the gallery of Florence, and many of the repositories at Venice, because they were stripped of their treasures by the French, we think was natural, and at all events justifiable: but, had he lived to see the moral and physical non-entity into which Italy has again been plunged, by the political death of the man whom he regarded as her tyrant, his honest mind would have pointed its invective against those who, on the ruins of a system which has been sufficiently vilified, would re-involve that beautiful country in the darkness of the thirteenth century. The present author follows Mr. Eustace in all things; and, according to him, implicit credit must not be given to the travels of Frenchmen, whose vivacity too frequently gets the better of their fidelity.

The general plan of Sir Richard is to visit some of the unexplored districts of Italy; and for this purpose, instead of pursuing his route in a direct line through the length of that state, and describing places already described to satiety, he usually fixes on some point in the centre of the district intended to be visited. Hence he sets off at different times, and carries on his researches to the right and to the left, until he has in a great measure exhausted his subject: when he departs for some new central point, from which he repeats the same process. In the execution of this admirable plan for prosecuting inquiries, his first head-quarters were established at Siena; a point singularly commodious for exploring that part of Etruria to which we may, perhaps, give the name of the twelve Lucomonies, whose united sceptres were possibly typified in the rods of the Roman fasces. — In this his first excursion, Sir R. visited the very antient cities of Volaterra, Populonia, Saturnia, Ansedonia, and Rusellæ; which were built, and, if we may judge from the colossal size of their ruins, were flourishing, long before the date of Roman history. To this excursus the Isle of Elba naturally belongs: but, from the nature of the work, we are spared any busy, and for the most part false details of the private life of its fallen master. To the whole of these journeys, and to many of those that follow, is subjoined an itinerary, which must be useful to persons who may feel inclined to trace the vestiges of this traveller through the same line of inquiry. Of those stupendous masses of uncemented stone which compose the

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walls of the remaining Etrurian cities, enough has been said to prove the existence of resources known to men of the most remote times, which almost surpass the wonders produced by modern science and calculation. In old Etruria, the mal' aria accompanies and discourages the investigator through most of his excursions, and leads to the melancholy conclusion that idiot-despotism can make a wilderness of a garden, and a grave of those haunts which, when enlivened and purified by industry and enterprize, were the first and chosen settlements of man.

As the island of Elba has lately been a point to which curiosity has been directed, we extract the author's account of this rich and extraordinary spot.

'The island of Elba was by the Greeks called *Æthalia*, and afterwards *Ilva*. In ancient as well as in modern times, it has been equally celebrated and frequented for its valuable iron mines near Rio. The circumference is estimated at sixty miles. It contains eight towns and communities, namely Porto Ferrajo, Porto Lungone, Capo Livere, St. Piero, St. Ilario, Marciana, Poggio, and Rio. Porto Ferrajo, said to be the *Argous Portus* of antiquity, is in the possession of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and from its size and neatness may be regarded as the capital of the island. Porto Lungone belongs to the courts of Spain and Naples, who also possess all the other small castles or forts, which are garrisoned by their troops; so that the whole military force, except the small part at Porto Ferrajo, is under their command. The other six districts have each their separate communities and magistrates. Rio enjoys more ample privileges than the rest, being exempted from all taxes; because the iron mines, which formerly belonged to the community, were ceded to the Prince, under certain conditions. A physician and surgeon are paid by the community to attend gratis all the sick of the district. Each town is governed by its peculiar magistracy, and appeals are carried to the governor-general, who resides at Piombino. Those made to the auditor-general, who resides with the Prince at Rome, are final.

'The island is chiefly composed of mountains, and very irregular in its form. The plains and vallies are small, and are situated contiguous to the villages. Cultivation is either ill understood, or much neglected. The produce of corn does not amount to more than three months' consumption of the inhabitants; but the wine is more than sufficient. A few olives are cultivated near Porto Ferrajo. Extensive groves of chesnuts are found at Marciana and Poggio. At Rio are many almond and fine fig trees, as well as walnuts. Goats are fed on the extensive tracts of waste land. Their milk makes indifferent cheese, but the curds are the most delicious I ever tasted, and formed the principal article of food during my stay.

'Nature

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'Nature has scattered over the mountains a vast profusion of plants, particularly of aromatics and evergreens. Aloes and Indian figs abound, and the general coppice-wood of the country is the ilex or evergreen oak. Vegetation is very forward, particularly at Porto Ferrajo. In other parts the mountains are feathered down to the very margin of the sea with myrtles and other tender shrubs.

'The great source of riches is formed by the iron mines at Rio. Though managed with little skill or order, they produce to the Prince a net revenue of sixty thousand scudi yearly on an average. These are the only mines now wrought, perhaps from policy, and a fear of exciting the jealousy of the neighbouring powers; for the island is said to contain mines of gold, silver, and copper. Those of granite, loadstone, and white and coloured marble, I myself visited. There are two tunny fisheries, at Porto Ferrajo and Marciana. The first belongs to the Grand Duke, the last to the Prince. Both are productive, but that of the Prince the most.

'The air is excellent, the water good, and the springs numerous. One source at Rio turns fifteen mills. Considering the general liberty given to the *cacciatori*, or sportsmen, hares and red-legged partridges are abundant. Porto Ferrajo and Porto Lungone are the only places well supplied with fish; for though much is caught on the coast, the want of a market, and the low prices at home, induce the fishermen to carry it to Leghorn and the coast of Tuscany, where they find a more ready and profitable sale. The wines made here are good, and many of them rich and luscious. Meat is scarce, and not of the best quality.

'The most elevated mountains are those of Marciana and Sassi Tedeschi. Many remains of old castles and churches are found in various parts of the island. The roads are not practicable for carriages, and scarcely safe for horses. As is the case in the Maremma, letters of recommendation are here absolutely necessary, for the only house which deserves the name of an inn is at Porto Ferrajo; but the hospitality of the inhabitants supplies the deficiency. The population of the whole island, not including the military stationed at Porto Lungone, is estimated at about ten thousand souls. The people are industrious, and appear to live comfortably. Most of those at Rio possess either a small vineyard, or a piece of corn land; and in reality, without such advantages, their condition would be hard, perhaps miserable. Many of the higher orders owe their ease and enjoyments to offices and salaries from the Prince, who pays his servants and ministers very liberally. Were the island in the possession of a sovereign, instead of belonging to an individual, I am persuaded every part of it might receive considerable improvement.

'The soil is good, and well adapted to olives. The mines are incalculably rich, and with proper management might be rendered doubly productive. For trade and commerce, the coasts are indented with a continued series of numerous and excellent ports. The air is healthy, the water pure, and provision cheap. If all

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these natural advantages were improved by wise regulations, and proper encouragement given to the industry of the inhabitants, the island would certainly rise to a much higher degree of consideration than at present, and, in fact, than its limited size appears at the first view to permit.'

With great appearance of probability, Sir Richard ascribes to the quarries of Sechetto very many of the granite columns which in Italy are supposed to be Ægyptian.

In his second excursion, from Rome to Beneventum, the line of the Appian road is the subject of his investigation; and, as his account of the formation of this road is, in fact, a digest of remarks that are applicable to the great Roman *Viæ*, we deem it deserving of notice.

'The next object for our consideration is the construction, form, and materials, of this celebrated way; of which we are enabled to judge by the description of a similar road, called the *Via Domitiana*, recorded by the poet Statius,

> '*O quantæ pariter manus laborant!*
> *Hic primus labor inchoare sulcos,*
> *Et lato egestu penitùs cavare terras,*
> *Mox haustas aliter, aliter replere fossas,*
> *Hi cædunt nemus, exuntque montes,*
> *Hi ferro scopulos, trabesque cædunt,*
> *Tunc umbonibus hinc et hinc coactis*
> *Et crebris iter alligare gomphis.*

'In forming these Roman roads, of which the traveller will see so many fine specimens throughout Italy, and more especially on the tract over which I shall now conduct him, the first process was to mark out the course of the intended road, which was invariably (in every country where the Romans had a footing) carried in as straight a line as the nature of the country would admit; the soil was then excavated, in order to procure a solid foundation, the want of which was remedied by piles. The sides of the causeway were then flanked by two strong walls, which served as a support to the road, and as a parapet or *trottoir* for the benefit of travellers. The shell of the road being thus formed, the excavated space, or the *fossæ*, was filled up with various layers of stone, cemented together by a kind of earth called *puzzolana*, which has the property of hardening almost equal to marble. Of this earth a mortar was composed, on which was placed an upper stratum of large flat stones, which were formed to a point at bottom. By these precautions, and the nice method adopted in uniting them on the surface, they were so firmly linked together, as to become almost one stone. The stones selected for the upper covering of the Roman roads are of a dark grey hue, resembling those formed by volcanic matter; which has induced some authors to suppose that the Romans, who, in the performance of any grand national work, never considered either expense or difficulty, had

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had transported the stones, designed for the Appian way, from some distant province, or perhaps from the neighbourhood of Mount Vesuvius, or Puzzuoli; but their opinion has been contradicted by others, who have discovered quarries of a similar stone in various parts of the Campagna. The *Via Flaminia*, *Cassia*, and *Aurelia*, being formed with similar materials, we cannot suppose that the Romans would have resorted to so distant a province as that in which Vesuvius is situate for the transport of stones.

'The noble and singular construction of the *Via Appia*, and the numerous vestiges of antiquity, which, in following its course, attract our attention, will ever render it an object worthy of the notice of every intelligent traveller. The monuments, which flank its sides through the Campagna as far as Albano, demonstrate great variety in plan as well as architecture; and are chiefly sepulchral, owing their rural situation to an express law of the twelve tables forbidding burial within the city walls. *In urbe ne sepelito.* The ground, therefore, immediately adjoining the city was selected for funereal use; and vanity, perhaps, may have had some influence over the minds of the Romans in selecting the immediate contiguity of the great travelling road for their mortal deposit, that the eye of the passenger might be attracted by the inscribed address, so commonly adopted, of *Siste, Viator!* On no other Roman road were the monuments so frequent as on the Appian way, which seems, like our Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's, to have been considered as the most distinguished site for interment.

'Before I commence this interesting iter, it is necessary to mention two other concomitant appendages to the Roman ways, the mile-stones, and the *cippi*. To Caius Gracchus has been attributed the invention of milliaries, which were generally moulded into a columnar shape; *singula milliaria dimensa diligenter, lapides columnis distincta.* These also served as monitors to the traveller of his progress.

> '*Intervalla viæ fessis præstare videtur,*
> *Qui notat inscriptus millia multa lapis.*

'In the smaller roads, called *trivii* and *quadrivii*, the *Lares viales*, and the *Dii Termini*, pointed out to the traveller the direction he should pursue.'

At Beneventum, Sir Richard observed a triumphal arch more splendid than any similar edifice at Rome. Instead, however, of continuing his route to the end of the Appian way at Brundusium, he was induced to leave it at Beneventum:—"*hic longæ finis chartæque Viæque.*" In many parts, this celebrated *Via* loses its original appellation in that of its restorer Trajan; and, by the name of *Via Trajana*, connects Beneventum with Brundusium. This flattery to the Emperor is supported by very many *miliares* inscribed with his name, and by medals struck in honour of the repairs, "*suâ pecuniâ.*"

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At Beneventum, Sir Richard bade adieu to things *oculis subjecta fidelibus*, as far as they concern this *Via*, and was obliged in some degree to have recourse to his own imagination; which, however, is kept from running riot by Horace, and by different itineraries.

The third excursus is explanatory of the journey to Brundusium, which, we believe, has been farther illustrated by a set of drawings made from the places more prominent in beauty on the way. In this description, the author sins against Horace by attempts to translate the untranslatable; by annotations from that highly serviceable publication for hard work, Lempriere's Dictionary; by the old horn-book explanation of the "*Homo factus ad unguem;*" and by reference to that author of modest and anonymous greatness, called "Editor of Horace."

In his excursion to Isola and the country about Arpinum, famous for having produced in Cicero the most literary, and in Marius the most gloriously illiterate, of mortals, the author falls in with the *Via Latina*, and follows its course with the least possible deviation to Rome. On passing Anagnia, he imperceptibly diverges from it, but recognizes it again about three miles from Monte Fortino; and he observes that its course, like that of the *Via Appia*, is satisfactorily indicated by a long series of ruins and sepulchral monuments. Not to follow him through his excursion to the lake of Celano, in the Abruzzo, we cross with him for Sicily; a country of which the interior is often considered here as the asylum of savage nature, and yet more savage men.

The opinion entertained by Virgil, that Sicily was rent from its neighbour by a vast effort of nature, is combated in this book from the difference of the opposite strata, and of the opposite altitude of coast. In the vicinity of so many wonders, produced by the sudden and irresistible convulsions of nature, we perceive nothing conclusive in the wonder itself against its possibility or even against its probability. The name of Pelorus, conferred on the vast broad promontory to the north-east of Sicily, we are more inclined to refer to its obvious and impressive sources, πελωρ and πελωριος, *i. e.* the promontory of fear, of horror, of vastness, of monsters, of mysterious dangers, (for the word admits all these significations,) than to the pilot Pelorus, and the story told of him, adumbrated as it seems to be from that of Palinurus, in all its bearings. Again, the city of Rhegium should seem to have derived its name, which it maintains to this day, from ῥήσσω, which would equally convey the idea of a forcible rent from the island, or of a broken and precipitous shore; and when

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when the names of Charybdis, χάρυβδις, *i. e.* πᾶν τὸ εἰς χάος καὶ ὄλεθρον κατάγον, *i. e.* that which sinks into an abyss and destruction, and Scylla, Σκυλλη, "the Dog's Whelp," from the howling and chafing of the seas against those crags, derive themselves inartificially from their nature, and are intrinsically Greek, it would surely be to break the ὀνοματοποια to go in quest of a story shadowed from another of the pilot of Æneas, for the name of the north-eastern promontory of Sicily; which forms part of the wonders, the dangers, and the mysteries of this tract, so celebrated in the antient Mythi of Greece and Rome. With regard to the rent, real or supposed, by which the frith is formed, the question remains as it was: since the abruptness of the Italian coast, the ῥηγμῖν θαλάσσης of Homer, would properly be expressed under the name of Rhegium.

At Syracuse, Sir R. Hoare tells us of the Temple of Jupiter Olympius, which gave its name of Olympiæum to the south-western quarter of the city, extending in length a 'stadium, or a quarter of a mile:' but he should have said, about the ninth part of a mile; which was nearly the exact distance measured for putting up the σαδιος λιθος.

'These Latomiæ are planted with numerous orange, lemon, pomegranate, almond, and olive trees. The lofty perpendicular rocks are overhung with Indian figs, and the regularity with which these excavations were originally made, has been broken by the shock of repeated earthquakes, which have detached vast masses of stone, and given to these solitary retreats an air of wildness and horror, inexpressibly striking.

'The Catacombs, now called the *Grotto di St. Giovanni*, not far from the amphitheatre, may also, I believe, be considered as within the limits of the Acradina. Near the entrance is an old church, said to have been built in the earliest ages of Christianity, and to contain the ashes of St. Marcian. It certainly bears an antique form and appearance, and within are several fragments of old columns, one of which is considered as destined for the execution of the martyrs. Near the church is a ruined chapel, resembling, in many respects, that of the Pittoruto at Noto, and though of better form and construction, is probably of the same age. The dome, or cupola, was composed of large stones, and a similar cornice runs round the building. On each side of the entrance are two Doric columns, fluted, and like those of the antique temples; but from the smallness of the stones with which they are formed, and certain projections at the angles of the capitals, appearing like heads, their antiquity may be called in question. Perhaps they were new modelled from antique materials.

'These catacombs owe their preservation to their subterraneous situation. From their extent, and the regularity and order with which they are disposed, we may form a more accurate idea of the wealth

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wealth and magnificence of ancient Syracuse, than from any other monument, now existing. A well-planned city has been excavated, under ground, with straight streets, squares, &c. &c. At certain intervals are distinct sepulchres, with vaulted roofs, resembling rotundas; and occasionally, in the middle of the streets, are single sarcophagi. Some of these sepulchres contain numerous niches, and others fewer, according to the numbers of the families to which they belonged. These catacombs, in regularity, form, extent, and plan, far exceed those of Naples or Rome.'—

'The remains of antique grandeur render Taormina an object of peculiar interest to travellers in Sicily. Nature, too, has added her share of embellishment to the scenes which this vicinity affords; the mountains are well wooded, and agreeably varied; the villages placed in lofty and romantic situations; and the ruins so advantageously disposed as to form the most rich and picturesque landscapes which have yet met my view.

'The theatre has deservedly attracted general notice and admiration. All the others, which exist in Sicily and elsewhere, want their principal ornament, the *scena*, which is here nearly entire. The space allotted to the orchestra is also preserved, as well as the dressing-rooms for the actors, and the greater portion of the inner gallery, adorned with several niches, which were probably destined for statues. The whole is built of brick, and in this respect it differs from the other antique structures in Sicily. It was, however, adorned with numerous columns of various species of marble, many fragments of which are yet on the spot, and have been indiscriminately incrusted in the walls, without taste, or attention to the places they originally occupied. The architect followed the usual principle, in rendering nature subservient to art, and to his own purpose, by availing himself of the natural declivity of the ground, in the disposition of the galleries and seats. His taste and judgment, too, are equally striking; for I cannot conceive that a similar situation is to be found again in all Europe; the centre of the scene being so placed as to open directly on Mount Ætna, and the magnificent regions beneath. What a glorious prospect! what a noble back ground! The mountain at one time vomiting flames and thick columns of smoke; at another, clothed to its very summit with snow. Below are various districts marked with different shades of vegetation, according to their distance from the crater, enlivened with villages, and sloping down towards the sea. An extensive reach of coast, as far as the *Capo di Croce*, near Augusta, and the ancient town of Naxus beneath, closes the view. Such were the prospects which the first inhabitants of Taormina enjoyed from the benches of their theatre; and however exquisite might have been the performances of art here exhibited, we may safely doubt whether they ever rivalled the scenery displayed by nature. Behind the galleries the view is scarcely inferior to that in front: an extensive sweep of coast towards Messina, and the distant shore of Calabria, present a different, though scarcely less enchanting, prospect. The spot, indeed, seems to have been created for a public edifice; behind

and

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and before are steep precipices, which leave just room sufficient to place this most noble and magnificent structure. I visited it frequently, and never left it without regret; and after the numerous relics of antiquity which I have seen in different countries, I may venture to say, that none afforded me higher gratification than the theatre of Taormina.

'The remains of an extensive and magnificent building, generally considered as the *Naumachia*, merit attention. They consist of a long wall, built of very large bricks without and massive stones within; and adorned with a series of niches, eighteen or nineteen of which are preserved: the heads of these are alternately rectangular and semicircular, the rectangular being the smallest. The corresponding wall on the opposite side is plain. A pavement of large, square, flat stones has been discovered; and on one of the bricks I observed some characters, which I could not decipher. Adjoining was a large reservoir for water, of which four others exist at Taormina, though one only, and that the smallest, remains in a tolerable state of preservation. This consists of two arcades, supported by eight pilasters. At one end is the entrance, to which a descent is formed by a staircase; and in another part of the building is a contrivance to discharge the superfluous water. The whole is exceedingly well built, and the stones are incrusted in the same manner as the walls of the *Piscina mirabilis*, near Baiæ. This piscina is on the side of the mountain, above the Capuchin convent; and behind the convent are the remains of the aqueduct, which conveyed water to the city from a considerable distance. These cisterns seem to have been destined to supply the inhabitants with water, in case the aqueducts should be destroyed by an enemy; for the elevated situation of the place rendered it necessary to resort to art for a supply of that element. Indeed, a modern aqueduct, following the course of the ancient, still furnishes the water used in the town.

'Many other relics of antiquity are to be found in Taormina. The church of St. Pancrazio appears to me of Grecian origin, and is perhaps the oldest building here. The outside walls of the present church are evidently the remains of an antique structure, perhaps the cell of a temple; the steps still exist; and the whole is formed of large stones, well united, without mortar. Close to this church are the foundations of another old building, the walls of which are lined with marble. Near the gate leading to Messina are also considerable remains of a third edifice in brick, called *la Zecca*. In various parts of the town I observed fragments of mosaic, broken columns, &c. &c.; and in the church belonging to the monastery of Valverde are some Greek inscriptions, which I did not copy, because they have been already published by the Principe di Torremuzza.

'On the eastern side of the town, and behind the convent of the Capuchins, near the aqueducts, numerous sepulchres may be seen, adorned with pilasters, stuccos, &c., and apparently of Roman workmanship. Near the Chiesa di St. Pietro, under the convent of Sta. Maria di Giesù, are many others of a different construction,

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struction, probably Saracenic. I also traced the ancient walls in various places. The wines of Taormina were so excellent, and so agreeable to my palate, that I furnished myself with a considerable supply; and on

'Monday, April 19. I left with regret this romantic and picturesque spot, which antique art, and nature, have equally contributed to adorn. I descended a steep mountain to the shore, where I found my litter and horses; and, continuing my journey along the sea-coast, observed many quarries of different kinds of marble, which abound in the territory of Taormina. The mountains, as before, were cultivated to their summits, and enlivened with numerous villages, &c. At S. Alessio is a rapid rise and descent, and the road is stony and bad. The castle, situated on a rugged eminence, forms a picturesque object. I again descended to the sea-beach, and continued my journey to *Fiume di Nisi*, where I dined, and refreshed my mules. Here the mountains approach nearer the shore, and are less cultivated. Plantations of mulberry trees, for the support of silk-worms, begin to make their appearance; and the Calabrian coast, with the town of Reggio, becoming still more visible, contribute to enliven the scene. I crossed many rivers, which in heavy rains must be very rapid, if not unpassable. Except at the pass of St. Alessio, the road skirts the shore, and is generally good. Before I reached Messina, I found numerous villas and gardens, and an extensive suburb. This is called the *Dromo*, and is much frequented by the nobility in the season of the Villeggiatura. I entered Messina by the *Porta Nuova*, and took up my quarters near it, at the Phœnix. In this quarter of the town I observed few traces of the devastation occasioned by the earthquakes in 1783, the houses having been since rebuilt, and the damages repaired.'

We have seen that this work professes to be a continuation of that of Mr. Eustace: but in style and manner it is essentially different; and it can by no means enter into competition with its forerunner in brilliancy of colouring, in the charm of diction, or in any of those graces which belong to writing alone. Of the two books, however, the present is possibly the more curious, because the line of inquiry is more remote from the usual course pursued by travellers in Italy; and because the author has embellished, or rather augmented, his disquisitions with a great number of lapidary inscriptions, which, in the usual severity of these antient memorials of persons and transactions, present to us but few examples of the tender and affecting, and many of which are beyond the power of any published *Siglarium* to explain. The following inscription is an exception to that severe style; and we cite it as the genuine record of a heart that could love, and of a concise and impressive eloquence which could register the feelings of such a heart.

'QVINTIVS

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'QVINTIVS . LVCIVS . BAREA . SORANVS.
MVSARVM . AMICVS .
DOMITILLAM .
PVELLAM . FORMA . ET . VIRTVTE . PRAESTANTEM.
QVAM ADAMAVERAT.
DVRIS . PARENTIBVS . EI DENEGANTIBVS.
IN HAC . VILLA . QVAM . LAVTIVS . AEDIFICAVIT,
LVCTV . MOESTITIA . ET . DOLORE . CONFECTVS.
SVVM . INFELICEM . AMOREM . CONTINVO . FLEVIT.'

Though this volume, however, abounds with inscriptions, and treats with apparent familiarity of antient men and manners, it does not impress us with an idea of any very intimate acquaintance with Greek or Roman lore, and has more the appearance of translation than of original commentary. Assigning (as we would readily do) such an error as an interesting digression '*per dulce* formiæ *littus*,' instead of *formiarum*,' to haste and carelessness, still the author's blind idolatry for one Dr. Lempriere and his highly useful fourth-form dictionary, and the numerous citations from it, instead of applying at the *integros fontes* whence it was, in too many cases erroneously, deduced, argue no profound research into the two antient and venerable languages. Above all, we found our belief of the justice of this remark on the ostentatious and obtrusive repetition of the words 'classic' and 'classical,' which occur *usque ad nauseam*, and certainly smell dreadfully of the "*nomine grammaticus*." Nevertheless, the author has many merits; — an unprejudiced and candid mind; an acquaintance with numerous excellent books; and an access, respectful indeed, and not leading far into the interior, to some works that are profound. Without the learning of Mr. Mitford, he has respected history as it has come down to us, and has relieved Dionysius from the importunate weight of panegyric with which that gentleman has overwhelmed the Sicilian monster. In a word, Sir Richard appears to have written solely in the cause of legitimate information and amusement; without any darling hypothesis which was to be fed in every place, even if at the expence of truth, of names which have been deemed sacred, and of that social order which has been found impracticable but in governments essentially free.

ART.

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ART. VIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1819.

[*Article concluded from Vol. xci. p.*382.]

Part I. MEDICAL AND CHEMICAL PAPERS.

THE Croonian Lecture. On the Conversion of Pus into Granulations of new Flesh. By Sir Everard Home, Bart. — Sir Everard here observes that the subject of his last year's lecture was an inquiry into the changes which the blood undergoes, preparatory to its being incorporated with the muscular and other structures of a living body; and that the present inquiry is extended to the changes of pus in the formation of granulations or new flesh. These changes are so nearly the same with those of the blood, that the red colour seems to be the principal character which distinguishes it from pus. Both in serum of blood and in the transparent fluid immediately secreted by sores, globules are afterward formed. Mr. Bauer found in $\frac{1}{1000000}$ part of a square inch on a glass-plate, with the micrometer, two or three globules separated to a considerable distance from the rest, lying in pure serum, which covered the whole surface of the square of the micrometer. In six or eight minutes, under the focus of the microscope, he perceived more new globules. In a glass-tube, four inches long and 3-8ths in diameter, filled with serum, at first only 15 or 20 globules were seen: but in seven days hundreds of globules were perceptible. The author conceives from these experiments that globules form in serum and in pus in a similar manner, after having been kept a little time; and this, he observes, makes the resemblance between blood and pus greater than it has been imagined to be.

In a former lecture, Sir Everard asserted that carbonic acid gas was evolved on the inspissation of pus, in the same manner as in the coagulation of the blood; and hence he was led to consider this as the first step in the process of granulation. Sores, on which straps of adhesive plaister had been applied for 24 hours, were inspected with a double convex lens, magnifying about eight times. A healthy wound, thus examined, presented an uneven surface, being made up of eminences and hollows: the former consisting of small clusters of tortuous vessels, and the latter being filled with pus. In five or ten minutes, a thin pellicle covered the whole surface, of so transparent a nature, that a number of small bubbles of gas were seen to make their appearance in different places; and, in a few minutes more, horizontal canals of different sizes, filled with red blood, taking different directions, and anastomosing with one another, were observed to form. Some places

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displayed red points, the terminations of perpendicular canals that had been stopped in their course by coming against the pellicle; and occasional specks of extravasation, from some of the horizontal canals, were bursting through the pellicle. Here the changes occurred in regular succession: 1st. a pellicle on the surface; 2d. bubbles of gas; 3d. canals carrying red blood, and filled with carbonic acid gas. It appears, then, that pus, coagulating, and carbonic acid gas, occasion granulations. It is asserted, also, that pus is coagulated more rapidly by cold water than by warm, or than by the atmosphere. By coagulating pus on the surface of sores with solution of sal-ammoniac, tortuous canals were immediately produced; and the canals are formed in the coagulated pus immediately on its coagulation, before any other approximation to living animal solids is made. The readiness, with which the blood displaces the carbonic acid gas contained in these canals, may be explained by the great disposition of the blood to absorb this particular gas, which forms so large a proportion of its component parts.

'If, then,' says Sir Everard, 'I have succeeded in establishing that coagulated pus is rendered tubular by the extrication of its carbonic acid gas, and that these tubes or canals are immediately filled with red blood, and thus connected with the general circulation, there will be little difficulty in making out the succeeding changes, by means of which the coagulated pus afterwards becomes organized; since Mr. Bauer's drawings, laid before the Society last year, trace the thin covering of the canals in the coagulated blood to the thick arterial coats met with in the testicle after the coagulum had remained a month in that situation; and it is the arteries which build up all the different structures in the body, as well in the restoration of parts as in their original formation.'

We apprehend that physiologists will regard the asserted inferences as mere hypotheses: no facts being established on satisfactory evidence to authorize us to assert the formation of the vascular organs from blood and pus, in the manner described according to autopsia with the aid of the microscope. How can we rely on the observation 'that coagulated pus is rendered tubular by means of the extrication of carbonic acid gas?' Where is the evidence of this gas? It is impossible to be satisfied with even the assertion of facts which rest on the author's judgment, if we find him, in some links of the chain of reasoning, taking for granted instead of proving any one of the necessary facts. One instance of such gratuitous assertions weakens our confidence, if it does not destroy it altogether, with regard to the other observation,

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ation, according to exhibitions by means of the microscope; and the assertion that 'coagulated pus is rendered tubular by the extrication of its carbonic acid gas' is not only without evidence, but against all probability; there being no proof that this gas exists either in pus or blood. As to the rest, grounded on microscopic phænomena, we only say, *Credat qui vult.*

Observations sur la Décomposition de l'Amidon, à la température atmosphérique, par l'Action de l'Air et de l'Eau. Par Theodore de Saussure, *Professeur de Minéralogie dans l'Académie de Genève.* — The change of farinaceous substances into sugar, by making seeds grow to a certain extent, as in the process of malting barley, and by the fermentation of these substances, especially if mixed with saccharine matter, in the process for obtaining ardent spirit or brandy from grain, has been known for some centuries past: but several new modes of producing sugar have been discovered within the last twenty years; and some improvements of these new modes are the subject of the long but valuable paper before us.

Kirchoff's experiments on producing sugar from a mixture of starch and gluten with sulphuric acid are well known, but Professor Saussure has found methods of forming it from starch alone, with water. Twenty parts of starch-powder made into jelly with hot water, and twelve times its weight of boiling water, were digested in an open vessel during two years, in a rather low temperature of the atmosphere. In this space of time, the mixture became a grey paste; and its texture was so changed that it was no longer fit for the purposes of starch-jelly. It became neither acid nor alkaline. This pasty matter was then digested for twenty-four hours with about an equal weight of cold water, being nearly twenty times the weight of the starch used in its dry state of powder; and next it was filtrated and elutriated with fresh portions of water. The filtrated liquid, on evaporation to dryness, afforded an extract equal to about $\frac{47}{100}$, or nearly one-half of the dry starch used to make the jelly. This extract being mixed with an equal weight of water, and then with ten times its weight of spirit of wine of the 35 degrees of Baumé, a dissolution of sugar took place: but a gummy matter remained undissolved, amounting to 1-10th of the dry amylum of the experiment. By repeated alcoholic dissolutions and evaporations, crystallized sugar was obtained, amounting to about $\frac{37}{100}$, or one-third of the dry starch-powder employed. The sugar had the same properties with that which is produced from starch by sulphuric acid, according to Kirchoff's method. Repeated decoctions of the residue in water, when the sugar

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and gummy matter had been separated, furnished a substance with intermediate properties between starch and gum. This product the author calls *Amidine*; for it dissolves in cold water, but retains the power of colouring *blue* the solution of *iodine*;—a property lately discovered to distinguish starch. The alcohol or æther used for digestion of the *pasty substances* contained a colouring matter soluble in water, equal to only $\frac{1}{1000}$ of the dry starch employed. A *ligneous matter* was also obtained from the residue of the dissolution of starch in sulphuric acid diluted; which the author denominates *ligneux amilacé*. The *charcoal* mixed with the *ligneux* remaining on the dissolution in alkaline lye amounted to 1-20th of the starch employed.

The oxygen of the atmosphere has little effect: for the products were the same, namely, sugar, gummy matter, amidine, oily matter, ligneux, water, charcoal, and carbonic acid gas, whether the starch-jelly was exposed to the open air, or was kept in sealed vessels from which the air had been previously expelled by heating the vessels.

The proportion of the products in these processes are stated to be

1. With 100 parts of starch of wheat, dried at about 55°, left to spontaneous fermentation in water, during thirty-eight days, *exoluded* from air,

1. Sugar,	47.4
2. Gummy matter,	23.
3. Amidine,	8.9
4. Ligneux amilacé,	10.3
5. Ligneux, with charcoal, a quantity inappreciable.	
6. Starch undecompounded,	0.4
	90.0

2. One hundred parts of dried wheat-starch, on fermentation, exposed to the *open* atmosphere, with water, furnished,

1. Sugar,	49.7
2. Gum,	9.7
3. Amidine,	5.2
4. Ligneux amilacé,	9.2
5. Ligneux and charcoal,	0.3
6. Undecompounded starch,	3.8
	77.9

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Other results are stated: but, as they do not materially differ from the preceding, it seems unnecessary for us to detail them.

The laborious and ingenious experimentalist infers,

1. That the air has no influence in the formation of sugar by the spontaneous decomposition of starch.

2. That, *with* the contact of air, the starch produces more water from oxygen and hydrogen than the starch when excluded from the air; indeed, in this circumstance, so far from producing water, it appears that a small quantity of water is appropriated from the elements of the mixture.

This memoir is certainly an acquisition to vegetable chemistry; and, taken in conjunction with Kirchoff's process with diluted sulphuric acid and gluten, by which sugar is obtained from starch in ten or twelve hours, it must be serviceable in several arts. Economical feeders of animals will probably avail themselves of the art of forming saccharine matter from farinaceous roots, seeds, &c., instead of using them in the state of amylaceous substances.

On Corpora Lutea. By Sir Everard Home, Bart. — This paper is intended to contain the result of the joint labours of Sir Everard and Mr. Bauer, in tracing the rise and progress of the *corpus luteum* to its full growth, its use, and, subsequently, its decay. This substance never occurs before puberty; a fact which obtains also with regard to brute animals. It is distinct from the ovarium, as a new body, not in the cells but in the substance of this organ. The appearances are exhibited in drawings annexed to this paper.

Corpora lutea continue to succeed each other as the young are produced, till the period at which breeding ceases. The *ova* are formed from the *corpora lutea*, and exist previously to and independently of sexual intercourse; and, having fulfilled their office of producing *ova*, they are removed by absorption, whether the *ova* are impregnated or not. *Corpora lutea* occur at fourteen years of age, even in virgins, and girls have borne children when twelve and thirteen years old. The annexed engravings from Mr. Bauer's drawings are very elegant and interesting, recording curious facts respecting the formation of the *corpora lutea* and *ova*: among many others, the *corpora lutea* bursting to part with their *ova*: whence it was proved that animals part with their *ova* whether sexual intercourse takes place or not.

On the Genus Ocythoë; being an Extract of a Letter from Thomas Say, Esq. of Philadelphia, to William Elford Leach, M.D. F.R.S. — The specimen of *Ocythoë punctata* in an *ar-*

gonauta,

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gonauta, here described, was taken from the stomach of a dolphin caught in soundings on the American Atlantic coast.

The size of this parasite animal is thus given :

Length from the disk to the tip of the abdomen,	2 inches.
Length of the abdomen,	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Greatest breadth of ditto,	$1\frac{1}{10}$
Length of the alated arms,	$2\frac{3}{4}$
Length of those of the opposite side,	5

Eggs sub-ovate, attached to a delicate pedicle by a small basilar tubercle. These fill the involuted spire in the specimen, besides a considerable portion of the shell.

Some Observations on the Formation of Mists in particular Situations. By Sir H. Davy, Bart. — In calm and clear weather, mists are observed over the beds of rivers and lakes after sunset. The radiation of heat and the nature of vapour, explained by Count Rumford, Professor Leslie, Mr. Dalton, and Mr. Wells, serve to interpret the phænomenon of these appearances: but Sir H. Davy, in discussing this subject, has supplied some new observations, which must afford entire satisfaction. He remarks that, as soon as the sun has disappeared, the surface of the globe begins to lose heat by radiation, but land and water do not cool in the same proportion: the impression of cooling on the land is limited to its surface, and is very slowly transmitted to the interior: in water above 45°, as soon as the upper stratum is cooled, whether by radiation or evaporation, it sinks in the mass of fluid, and its place is supplied by warmer water from below; and till the temperature of the whole mass is reduced nearly to 40° F., the surface cannot be the coolest part.

'It follows, therefore, that wherever water exists in considerable masses, and has a temperature nearly equal to that of the land, or only a few degrees below it, and above 45° F. at sunset, its surface during the night, in calm and clear weather, will be warmer than that of the contiguous land; and the air above the land will necessarily be colder than that above the water; and when they both contain their due proportion of aqueous vapor, and the situation of the ground is such as to permit the cold air from the land to mix with the warmer air above the water, mist or fog will be the result; which will be so much the greater in quantity, as the land surrounding or inclosing the water is higher, the water deeper, and the temperature of the water which will coincide with the quantity or strength of vapour in the air above it greater.'

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This theory is confirmed by the author's observations during his passage on the Danube, from Ratisbon to Vienna. They were continued also in passing along the Rhine from Cologne to Coblentz; on the Raab, near Kermond, in Hungary; on the Save, in Carniola; on the Izonzo, in the Friul; on the Po, near Ferrara; and on the Tiber. In no instance was mist formed on any river, or lake, when the temperature of the water was lower than that of the atmosphere, even if the atmosphere was saturated with vapour.

The same effects are not produced by the cooling agent, land, as by the cooling agent, water, the properties of land and water being different. Water becomes lighter on abstracting heat from the atmosphere, and the warmer stratum rests on the surface: its operation, also, in cooling the surface, is slow. The cooled atmospheric stratum, moreover, remains in contact with it; and water cannot be deposited from vapour, when that vapour is rising into an atmosphere of a higher temperature than its own: a law which holds good whatever may be the difference of temperature. Great dryness of the air, or a current of dry air passing across a river, will prevent the formation of mist, even when the temperature of the water is much lighter than that of the atmosphere. The Tiber furnished a number of examples of the truth of this theory. Sir Humphrey says that he does not mean to discuss the general subject of the deposition of water from the atmosphere, in the present paper: but merely to describe a local cause of considerable extent and variety in its modifications, and of considerable influence on the fertility of land in hot climates, which generally follows the courses of rivers, extending to the hills and plains contiguous to their banks.

Part II.

On the specific Gravity and Temperature of Sea-Waters, in different Parts of the Ocean, and in particular Seas; with some Account of their saline Contents. By Alexander Marcet, M.D. F.R.S. — While analyzing the waters of the Dead Sea and the river Jordan, about twelve years ago, and conversing on the peculiarities of these waters with the late Mr. Tennant, Dr. Marcet conceived that a chemical examination of different seas, in a variety of latitudes, and at various depths, might be interesting; and, aided by Mr. Tennant's advice, it was determined that he should submit different specimens to chemical analysis. Of the valuable assistance of that gentleman, Dr. Marcet was deprived by a well known deplorable accident; which would have occasioned the intended

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intended analyses to be neglected, if the Doctor had not derived a new stimulus to exertion from some valuable specimens of sea-waters, which were furnished by the late expeditions to the arctic circle.

Above seventy specimens of water from different seas were collected, and the author's object was, First, to ascertain their specific gravity: which was determined in the usual mode, by weighing equal bulks of sea-water and distilled water in a phial with a perforated stopper. * Smaller weights than 1-10th of a grain were not employed; and hence, when smaller weights are set down in the tables annexed, in the sixth decimal figure, such very minute parts must not be understood to have been derived from actual experiment, but only from calculation, by the conversion of the weights actually obtained into the usual standard of 1000 parts.

Several contrivances were invented for raising water from the bottom of the sea, to improve the instrument for this purpose employed by Dr. Irving: which consisted simply in a cylindrical vessel, having an opening at the top, and a similar opening at the bottom, each closed by a flap or valve opening only upwards, and moving freely on hinges. When this apparatus was sunken in the sea, the valves would of course be kept open by the current of water passing freely through the machine, as long as it descended; and, when drawn up again, the valves would be kept closed by the water acting in an opposite direction. This instrument did not entirely exclude water in ascending, owing to the oscillations which were liable to take place. Alterations were made in order to remedy these defects, with the assistance of Mr. Newman; and even new inventions, here fully described, were substituted: but none of them appear to be unobjectionable. The results obtained with regard to the specific gravities of sea-water are exhibited in tables, each accompanied by some collateral information; and many inferences are hence drawn, of which a few may be noticed.

The ocean in the southern hemisphere is more salt than in the northern, in the proportion of 1029.19, to 1027.57.— The specific gravity of equatorial sea-water is 1027.77. No satisfactory evidence occurs to shew that the sea, at different depths, is more strongly impregnated with salt than it is near to the surface; except under peculiar circumstances, that may be explained. In general, waters of the sea contain more salt in places where the ocean is deepest and farthest from

* This method with a perforated stopper is noticed as a new improvement, but it has been a long time in use.

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land; and large masses of ice seem to have the same effect as land in diminishing the saltness of water. Generally, small inland seas are much less salt than the open ocean; as in the cases of the Baltic, the White Sea, the Black Sea, the Sea of Marmora, and the Yellow Sea. The Mediterranean is an exception to this rule, but we have not room for the ingenious explanation of this deviation. — Of the waters of the Atlantic, the author has not been able to obtain conclusive results. The unfortunate traveller, Browne, who was murdered, sent a most interesting specimen of water from the lake Ourmia, or Urumea, in Persia, near Mount Ararat. This lake is, by computation, 300 miles in circumference, is so salt that fishes cannot live in it, and has a sulphureous smell. The specific gravity was 1165.07. Except the *Dead Sea*, this is a greater specific gravity than any other sea possesses. The *ice-berg* waters of the northern regions are nearly pure, the specific gravity being 1000. — In the northern expedition, Lieut. Franklin generally found the sea to be sensibly warmer at great depths than near to the surface, by four or five degrees; and these observations have been confirmed by other respectable naval officers. De Luc first, and next Blagden, observed that in freezing water it ceased to contract when it reached the 40th degree, and then expanded gradually downwards till it became solid, when it underwent sudden considerable expansion. Sea-water of 1027 remains fluid till cooled to between 18° and 19°. It contracts till it reaches 22°, and then expands a little till it falls to 18° or 19°, when it suddenly freezes, and rises to 28°, where it remains.

Secondly; *Of the saline Contents of the Waters of different Seas.* — The principal ingredients in sea-water are well known to be muriate of soda and muriate of magnesia. It also contains sulphuric acid and lime, though in what state these ingredients are included is not ascertained, as binary compounds are liable to be influenced by heat and concentration in the very processes which should determine the question: but it is supposed most probable that the salts in sea-water are, muriate of soda, muriate of magnesia, muriate of lime, and sulphate of soda. The whole results of the analysis of the numerous sea-waters examined are represented in tables annexed. It appears that all the different seas contain the same impregnations, varying in their total amount only; and bearing the same proportions to one another, except the Dead Sea and the lake Ourmia, which are mere salt-ponds, unconnected with the ocean.

This most elaborate and ingenious memoir concludes with Dr. Wollaston's discovery of potash in sea-water, by means

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of muriate of platina, if the water be reduced by evaporation to 1-8th. The precipitate of muriate of platina and potash being mixed with a little sugar, and heated, the platina is reduced; and muriate of potash may be separated by water, and the nature of its base be shewn by its yielding crystals of nitrate of potash with nitric acid. The quantity of mere potash is less than $\frac{1}{1000}$, on the average.

Account of the Fossil Skeleton of the Proteo-Saurus. By Sir Everard Home, Bart.—This memoir is intended to afford a more full and correct account of this animal than that which was given in 1814 and 1818, in consequence of the contributions since communicated; so that nearly the whole skeleton has been procured. Among the corrections, is one of the error in mistaking an injury of the bones delineated in a former engraving for a natural orifice. If such errors as this be committed, not only will fresh memoirs be necessary to undeceive the public, but additional funds will be required by the Royal Society to defray the expence of worse than fruitless engravings. The bones of the pelvis are still wanting. The best remark is that these bones, found in the blue lias at Weston, near Bath, are not, as hitherto supposed, those of the crocodile.

Reasons for giving the Name Proteo-Saurus to the Fossil Skeleton which has been described. By the Same.—It appears that the Proteus from Germany, the Syren from Carolina, and the Axoloti from Mexico, agree not only in having lungs and gills, and therefore are capable of breathing both in air and water, but in having feet and cupped vertebræ, and are therefore capable of employing the mode of progression both of land-animals and of fishes. Whatever variations there may be among themselves, yet, as they all possess these two great distinguishing characters, which no other animals can boast, they must be allowed to form a distinct tribe, or class; which, says the author, 'I shall call Proteus, till a more appropriate name may be given.' The animal is not a perfect Proteus, but is clearly shewn to be between the Proteus and the Lizard, and will be sufficiently marked out by calling it *Proteo-Saurus.*

On the Ova of the different Tribes of the Opossum and Ornithorhynchus. By the Same.—It is determined that the *ova* of quadrupeds are formed generally in *corpora lutea*, and that in all quadrupeds the *ova* become attached to the *uterus*, from which the fœtus receives its support and increase: hence we are enabled to ascertain the modes of formation of the *ova* of the Opossum tribes, which, from the want of this previous knowlege, have not been investigated with any suc-

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cess till the present time. The *ova* of these tribes of animals are not formed in the same manner, and the differences make two distinct links between quadrupeds in general and the Ornithorhynchi. These again approach so nearly to the bird, as to complete the links of gradation between the human species and the feathered race, as far at least as their mode of generation is concerned. The mode of formation of the *ova* in the Kangaroo constitutes the first link in this beautiful series; and in this animal Mr. Bauer has found the *corpus luteum* similar to that of quadrupeds. A description is given of the passage of the *ovum* from the *corpus luteum* into the uterus, and thence into the *marsupium*. The mode of forming the *ova* in the Koli and the Woom-bat of New South Wales, and in the great and small Opossum of North America, makes the second link in this chain of gradation. Instead of *corpora lutea* they have yelk-bags. — The manner of forming the *ova* in the Ornithorhynchi constitutes the intermediate link between that of the American Opossum and the bird.

The summary of these intricate inquiries is thus given:

'In the human species, and quadrupeds in general, the ova are formed in corpora lutea, and pass into the uterus; and when the fœtus is completely formed, it is expelled by the vagina, and afterwards sucks the mother. In the kangaroo, the ova are formed in corpora lutea, receive their yelks in the Fallopian tube, and their albumen in the uterus. The ovum thus completed is impregnated in the uterus, aërated by means of lateral tubes; and when the young is expelled it is received into the marsupium, and attached to the nipple of the mother. In the American opossum, the yelk-bags are formed in the ovaria; pass into the uterus; there receive the albumen, and are then impregnated: the fœtus in each uterus is aërated by one lateral tube. When expelled from the uteri, the young are received into the marsupium, and become attached to the nipples of the mother. In the ornithorhynchi, the yelk-bags are formed in the ovaria; received into the ovi ducts, in which they acquire albumen, and are impregnated afterwards; the fœtus is aërated by the vagina, and hatched in the oviduct; after which the young provides for itself, the mother not giving suck. In the pullet, the yelk-bags are formed in one ovarium, impregnated in one oviduct, and hatched out of the body.'

The public cannot refuse to own their obligations to Sir E. Home for these abstruse researches, to which few physiologists are equal.

An Account of a Membrane in the Eye, now first described. By Arthur Jacob, M. D. — Besides the two asserted layers, of which the retina is said to consist, viz. the medullary expansion of the optic nerve next to the choroid coat, and the vascular

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vascular or membranous layer, next to the vitreous humor, Dr. Jacob finds that the retina is covered on its external surface by a delicate transparent membrane, united to it by cellular substance and vessels. This membrane covers the retina from the optic nerve to the ciliary processes. Besides being attached to the retina, it is moreover attached to the choroid coat.

The first part of these Transactions for the present year is also before us, and we hope to report its contents in our next Number.

ART. IX. *An Appeal from the Judgments of Great Britain respecting the United States of America*, containing an Historical Outline of their Merits and Wrongs as Colonies; and Strictures upon the Calumnies of British Writers. By Robert Walsh, Esq. junior. 8vo. Philadelphia. 1819. Second Edition, London, Longman and Co. Price 12s. Boards. 1820.

IN the first article of our last Number, we commenced a detailed view of the statistics of North America, combined from an examination of several works on that subject: but we suspend for the present month our continuation of that report, for the purpose of introducing some inquiries of a different nature relative to the United States. We gave, also, at the same time, an account of the publication of an American writer, (*Sketch-Book* of Geoffrey Crayon,) who adverted to the unfriendly spirit which he alleges to subsist in this country, when speaking of the habits, acts, or talents of our trans-Atlantic brethren; and we made such observations on that point as we thought the case deserved and required. We are therefore the less inclined, and it is the less necessary for us, to enter into the merits and *minutiæ* of that question at the present moment, though Mr. Walsh has treated it much more elaborately, and in a determined spirit not only of defence but of recrimination.

Mr. W. has probably imagined that he was performing a patriotic duty in thus vindicating the honour of the Americans from the aspersions which have been cast on it by the English; and that he was promoting the cause of justice by weighing in a just balance the virtues and the vices of England and America. He might, however, have discovered that, even to attain this object, too much might be sacrificed; and that it is scarcely the act of one who has at heart the true interests of his own country to sow dissension between it and another state, both of which seem to have already sufficient causes of rivalry and animosity:

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animosity: but both of which, from their original connection, — the freedom of their governments, — their community of language, — and the bonds of commercial intercourse, — ought to be closely united in friendship and peace. It was not thus that Mr. Geoffrey Crayon wrote, although his mind was apparently as much wounded as that of Mr. Walsh: nor is it thus that we would write: nor will we assist in producing the consequences of such a contest by debating the angry points of which it is formed. The spirit in which this work is composed, and the mode of argument which is adopted in it, while they tend to inflame the minds of those whose sentiments are opposed to the Americans, will scarcely, from the frequent violence of the language, and the evident irritation under which the author writes, persuade a cool and disinterested reader that it is the cause of justice only that Mr. Walsh advocates. In an appeal to the world, like this, recrimination is useless; yet it is frequently the only argument of which Mr. Walsh makes use. What is it to other nations, if the character of America be bad, that the character of England is bad also; or what sort of a justification would it be for a criminal that he could produce a man still more guilty than himself? Admitting, for a moment, the correctness of the comparison which Mr. Walsh has instituted, we yet arrive at no conclusion; though we have before allowed, and do again confess, that there are grounds of complaint against us for the manner in which Englishmen have both written and spoken of the Americans; and, had such complaints been made in a dignified and temperate manner, they might have been productive of good.

We do not intend, then, to enter on a survey of all the charges which are brought against our country in this bulky volume, and which impugn almost every part of the English character: nor shall we even try to convince Mr. Walsh that we are not quite so bad as he here supposes us, though he himself was formerly of a very different opinion from that which he now holds. As a considerable part of his work is designed to controvert the opinions which the critics of England have entertained and expressed respecting the literature of his country, we shall devote our attention to a subject that is more consonant to our habits, and more connected with our duty, and endeavour to give our readers a correct opinion of one branch of American literature, derived from a general view of its productions in that department. We may thus enable them to judge for themselves of the merits or deficiencies of trans-Atlantic poetry.

"It

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"It is only," says Alison, "in the higher stations, or in the liberal professions of life, that we expect to find men either of a delicate or comprehensive taste. The inferior situations of life, by contracting the knowledge and the affections of men within very narrow limits, produce insensibly a similar contraction in their notions of the beautiful or the sublime." In endeavouring to account for the proficiency which any nation has made in literary culture, and more especially in those branches which depend principally on the exercise of taste, we have perhaps no surer guide than an attentive examination of the nature of those pursuits in which the mass of the inhabitants are employed. The constitution of the human mind is such that it insensibly accommodates itself to the circumstances in which it is placed, and to the occupations with which it is most conversant; and in proportion as it becomes attached to any one study or employment, it naturally learns to regard that one as the most worthy of its attention and labour. The degree of attachment, which we thus feel towards our own peculiar studies, does not depend on their intrinsic value or excellence; for frequently, indeed, the less important or even the more despicable they are, the stronger is our affection towards them, and the less inclined are we to exchange them for more honourable or more useful occupations. It is not, however, to be supposed, because the attention of an individual or of a nation has been exclusively directed to objects of minor importance, that under other circumstances, and with other inducements, the same powers might not have made an equal progress in higher pursuits; and in judging of the actual capacities of a people, we are rather to consider the extent of what has been done in those things to which they have applied themselves, than to measure their ability by the absence of those acquirements from which their situation, perhaps, has precluded them. That genius or power of mind, which has been led by circumstances into some one channel, may still by the same means be diverted into another course; and the same talents, which in one pursuit insured success, will scarcely fail in another to procure for the possessor the same advantages.

In applying these observations to America, and in examining the progress which that country has made in matters of taste, we must not forget the energy and the exertion which it has displayed in the most arduous situation in which a nation can be placed. On the establishment of its liberties, the higher but sterner powers of the mind found ample scope for exercising themselves, while the finer acquisitions of taste and polite learning were naturally in some degree neglected. When

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When the stability of America as an independent state was no longer doubtful, it was soon found that its importance and power must depend principally on the success of its commerce; for the prosecution of which the products and situation of the country afforded so many advantages. The minds of the whole nation, we may say, were therefore almost exclusively devoted to trade; with the exception of those who sought an employment in agriculture, and whose situation in general precludes them from any attempts in literature. The United States possessed very few of that class which we find in old established countries, the independent gentry, who are compelled to resort to books as a means of relieving them from a portion of that unoccupied time, which lies so heavy on their hands; and none of those people of high rank and enormous fortune, who, however little they may be personally attached to literature and science, are yet compelled by fashion or by custom to afford them some encouragement. When commerce thus became the principal employment of the Americans, it naturally obtained that importance in their eyes which is the consequence of an exclusive pursuit; and every other object (literature among the rest) was accounted of secondary consideration. Books therefore formed merely the study of those hours which were not engrossed by the business of the mart, or dissipated the tedium which was felt by active minds in the absence of matters of nearer interest. It may also be very properly questioned whether the pursuits of commerce are not peculiarly disadvantageous to the promotion of literature, or the developement of intellectual excellence; and whether, by the minuteness of their details, and their unvarying sameness, they do not tend to narrow the mind, and unfit it for the reception of extended and liberal thought.

At a period of time, however, when the efforts of mind have wrought such wonderful effects in almost every quarter of the world, and when the diffusion of education and literary knowlege has become an object of the deepest importance with every civilized nation, it was impossible that an ambitious people, like the Americans, could remain inactive in forwarding that cause, on which the happiness and independence of all nations must ultimately rest. Their pride, also, which makes them unwilling to yield the palm of excellence to any other nation, prompted them in their attempts to rival the literature of the old world, and not to found their pretensions on a completely unsubstantial basis; while the great freedom of their press, and the cheapness of all literary materials, placed it in the power of almost every individual to

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to give the public an opportunity of judging of his merits. To these favourable causes we may add that, throughout the United States, scarcely a citizen can be found who has not at least been taught to read.

We scarcely know whether to consider it as favourable to the progress of American literature, that her citizens have the power of sharing the fruits of the learning and the genius of England. While it cannot be denied that many advantages must arise to them from the perusal of all our best authors, and that their principles of taste must be formed in a great measure on the model of ours, it must equally be admitted that the reliance which they thus place, for a constant supply of literary aliment, on the labours of a foreign nation, must greatly tend to discourage their own literature. In this respect, America stands in a very peculiar situation. — When Rome consented to become a borrower from the literature of a country which she had conquered, the knowlege of the Greek language was an essential requisite; and however the spirit of imitation might, as it certainly did, influence the taste and compositions of the Romans, it supplied a fund of knowlege which superseded the exertions of their own scholars. In the same manner, the influence of the Italians after the revival of letters, and of the French in a subsequent age, was very great on English literature: but their labours never in any degree supplied the place of our own authors. The dependence, in which the Americans must thus continue on their mother-country, will exist as long as the community of language and the interchange of commerce connect them so closely together; and the only counterbalance to this effect will be the desire which certainly exists among them, of forming a literature of their own. We may judge of the degree in which the Americans are indebted to us in these matters, by examining a list of the English authors whose works have been re-published on the other side of the Atlantic; and among whom we shall find almost every name which has acquired any tolerable degree of celebrity in England. The writings of our most popular poets of the day, Lord Byron, Campbell, &c. are reprinted in a form which renders them much more accessible to the general reader than among us, and cannot therefore fail of being very widely circulated. The republication, also, of some of our most important literary periodical publications, and the insertion in their own Magazines of many of the most valuable articles from ours, must necessarily have a very decided influence in directing the taste of those who peruse them, and who in general regard their *dicta* with great reverence. We understand that the number of

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of young men who may be seen in New York, on the day of the re-publication of a long-expected Review from England, sauntering through the streets with their favourite number in one hand and their paper-cutter in the other, is very remarkable, and would lead us to suspect that the influence of English criticism is indeed great among the *literati* of America. Yet, while they thus take advantage of most of our best authors, they have not, unfortunately, the discrimination to reject all the wretched compositions which issue from our press. The re-publication of many of our most doggrel verses, of numbers of the miserable novels and romances which fill our circulating libraries, and of the scandalous chronicles of London and Paris, shews that the Americans are not willing to accept the good things which are offered to them, without a dash of the evil.

One good effect, however, will accrue to the Americans from this dependence on the writers of England: their language will be the less liable to corruption. Those who have read occasional specimens of Columbian compositions, or the accounts of travellers in the United States, must have perceived what a disposition exists in that country for the creation of new words, and what attempts are frequently made to torture old words into new meanings: though many of these words, which may seem to be newly coined, are in fact such as are obsolete among us, but have been retained by the Americans; or they are provincialisms which have gradually crept into general use. In many cases, certainly, such words are completely novel in the English language, and are sometimes borrowed from the vocabularies of their Indian neighbours. The *literati* of the New World, in the true spirit of republican freedom, claim the *right** of coining new words; which certainly cannot be denied, though we may often question the propriety of its application. The attention of the Americans themselves has been devoted to this important subject; and the work of Mr. Pickering, containing a vocabulary of those words which are generally supposed to be Americanisms, and a short but sensible essay on the evils which may flow from these attempts to improve a language by the addition of new and unnecessary terms, will, we hope, prove of great utility.

The causes which we have before mentioned, as operating unfavourably on the general literature of the Americans, apply with still greater force to their improvement in the

* See Pickering's Essays on Americanisms, p. 20.

poetic

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poetic art. Very seldom can we trace the seeds of poetic feeling in those whose minds are devoted to the pursuits of commerce. In our own country, fertile as it at present is in the quantity and diffusiveness at least of poetic talent, we cannot mention one writer of any celebrity whose occupations are merely commercial. There seems to be something in the spirit of trade that is completely inimical to the existence of poetic feeling; and the passion of avarice, which is the offspring of such occupations, is said to exist in great force among the Americans. No other passion is so contrary to the high-toned dignity of a poet's mind as this; and it is so old a truth that commercial habits are productive of a strong and increasing love of money, that we cannot persuade ourselves that the Americans are not deeply tinctured with this vice. "The man whose life has been passed in the pursuits of commerce, and who has learned to estimate every thing by its value in money, laughs at the labour of the philosopher or the poet, and beholds with indifference the most splendid pursuits of life if they are not repaid with wealth." *

In those natural beauties of scenery in which the eye of the poet finds such delight, and on which his verse loves to dwell, the country of the Americans amply abounds; and in sublimity of scenery they certainly far surpass their parent-state, for nature appears there to have formed almost every object in a larger mould. † Many of the associations, which mingle so finely in the poetical compositions of the native of an old country, must necessarily be wanting in the productions of the American poets: they have no antiquity to which they can look back; they cannot insist on the glorious achievements of their ancestors, for they have separated themselves from the stock of Englishmen; they have no ruins over which they can mourn, nor any monuments to inspire them; they have none of those old national lays which every nation of Europe possesses, and on which a great foreign critic places such inestimable value ‡; they sprang into existence as a nation like Minerva from the head of Jove; and they have known no infancy.

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* Alison on Taste, vol. i. p. 88.

† "As education becomes exalted and refined, and literary pursuits occupy the attention of a larger proportion of the community, the qualities which constitute the poet will gradually be developed and matured, whilst the annals of our nation, *and the scenery of our land*, will afford a fund of interesting and inviting subjects for the muse."—*Analectic Magazine. Philadelphia*, 1815. Vol. vi. p. 170.

‡ Frederick Schlegel, in his History of Literature.

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One of the great characteristics of all the American poetry which we have perused is a want of depth both in thought and feeling; and the next most striking peculiarity is the absence of all consistent taste. So remarkable indeed is the latter, that we are frequently tempted to think that we are perusing the productions of some very young person, whose immature judgment has not been chastened into that consistency by which compositions of very moderate excellence are not unfrequently rendered pleasing to the reader. The origin of this fault is undoubtedly to be found in the want of that more solid and classical erudition, and that more complete acquaintance with the great masters of the poetic art, which are indispensably necessary to the formation of a genuine and correct taste. The Americans have not yet been taught to drink at the springs of learning, but fly to the shallow streams, from which they are content to imbibe a portion of the sacred fountain. They are attached, also, to every kind of lighter literature; and their minds consequently acquire a frivolity which unfits them for the exercise of any deep and powerful emotion. When their theme is American virtue or American valour, their better judgment is sure to desert them, and they burst forth into some inflated and high sounding panegyric on themselves and their peculiar excellence. Of this spirit we could collect proofs from almost every volume of trans-Atlantic rhyme which has come into our possession; and the naval engagements in which they have been successful seem more peculiarly to awake their lyre. It is unwise in the Americans to do this; for it tends in the eyes of all sensible people to detract from that portion of real fame to which, as a nation, their exertions have often intitled them, and to induce a belief that the vanity of empty praise is intended to supply the place of merit. If we should be accused of making these observations without sufficient grounds, we may refer our readers to any collection of American national songs, where they will find abundant proofs of the truth of our assertion.

In examining the list of American poets, none will be found who can make any very decided claim to superiority over the rest. We do not by any means intend to assert that the productions of all are of equal merit: but certainly we do not meet with any one whose supereminent talent intitles him to take the lead of the others. The reason probably is that no one among them has devoted himself with enthusiasm to the cultivation of poetry; for the volumes which are occasionally given to the American public are, we suspect, the productions of men whose leisure-hours alone are dedicated to the Muses, and whose reasonable desire of fame is limited to the success-

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ful reception of a small volume of songs and other trifles. The poets of America, indeed, write for fame under very great disadvantages; since they have to contend not only with the wits of their own country, but with the more gigantic geniuses of ours. It is very possible that Mr. Dabney may be judged to compose better poetry than Mr. Maxwell, but even his own countrymen and admirers will not suspect him of surpassing Lord Byron. Another cause, also, of the mediocrity in the poetry of the Americans is that many of their authors are very young, as the writer of "The Bridal of Vaumond," and Mr. Washington Allston, author of "The Sylphs of the Seasons, with other Poems." The ease with which literary compositions are ushered before the public in the New World is the cause of these juvenile appearances.

With regard to the style of American poetry in general, we may remark that it has no originality of character by which it can be distinguished from the poetry of our own country. Independently of the difference of language, the poetry of various nations possesses sufficient distinctive and characteristic marks to enable a competent judge to decide to what people it belongs: there is always a perceptible difference in the mode of thinking and in the sentiment of nations, — a peculiarity of feature in their poetry as much as in their habits or countenances, — which would be as easily discoverable though in the garb of a translation, as the lineaments of a foreigner, though disguised in the habit of our own country. This, however, does not apply to American poetry; which is English in all but sterling merit, and in a few instances where some unfortunate *Americanism* escapes to declare in what hemisphere it was born. The American authors in general have followed in the steps of our most successful poets; and we consequently have many imitations of Sir Walter Scott and Lord Byron, but more particularly of the former. In some instances, however, we find them the disciples of the French school, or labouring to rival the smooth and elegant versification of Pope: but in no case do we see them attempting to establish a new school of poetry, such as of late years has sprung up among ourselves under the auspices of Wordsworth and Coleridge.

In attempting to illustrate the foregoing observations by some extracts from the minor poets of the New World, we shall indiscriminately select from several authors such pieces as may best tend to give a correct idea of the present state of poetical taste in that country. The poems of Mr. Richard Dab-

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ney * certainly possess more originality of thought, and display more of the hand of a poet, than any other trans-Atlantic composition which we have seen. The first part of his volume is an attempt to express some associations of the mind, or simple trains of thought, in the language of poetry; an idea which seems to have struck the author from a perusal of Alison's Essay on Taste. These attempts he calls illustrations of simple moral affections. We extract the first part of his ninth illustration.

"*Melancholy — dwelling*, 1. *with deep and tender Regret; or*, 2. *Fixed Despair, on the Recollection of some severe Privation.*

—— "Many years had passed, and many things
Those envious years had taken away with them.
Yet left they nought? yes! poverty and woe.
But memory, like the shower that cheers and gladdens
The weary wanderer in the dreary waste,
Came fresh upon me, and then I thought
Of home and happiness, of youth and love.
Thither my footsteps turned. In fancied view
As still the tedious road wound slow and far,
And many, many miles must still be passed,
I saw a smiling group with welcome aid
Prepared to soothe the wanderer's many woes.
A brother mindful of a brother's peace,
A sister tender to a brother's grief,
A mother glowing with a mother's love.
I reached the door; but, as in days long past,
It showed no joyful crowd of eager faces,
In joyful strife to ask affection's question
Of health and welfare, happiness and her,
Whom fate, alas! has numbered with the dead.
I reach'd the door, but there no brother's hand,
With fervent clasp of brother's love, pressed mine;
No sister gave, of joy a pledge, a kiss;
No mother op'd her arms to bless her son.
I reached the door, and loud and long I knocked;
At length a face appeared, as strange and cold,
As to the traveller from chamber warm
The unexpected waste of morning snows.
I trembling asked, Live they, and live in health?
No, they are dead; — and strangers hold their mansion?
I turned away: — would'st thou believe it, friend?
These tearless eyes, that many, many years,
Have pored with dry and parched earnestness,
On all the woes that human nature suffers,
Wept then, and bitter, bitter, were the tears.

* *Poems original and translated.* By Richard Dabney. 12mo. pp. 172. Printed at Philadelphia.

"And

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"And nature, too, in scorn of mortal man
Look'd just the same as if no change had past.
The same the green sward sloping to the gate;
The same the verdant smoothness of its surface,
As when in infancy I sported on it;
The honeysuckle wound its odorous boughs,
In many folds, around the arched bower,
The same in verdure, and in sweets the same,
As when, ah sad the thought, Eliza's hand
Formed, from its dewy flowers, a wreath for me.

"O that, since man is sadly mutable,
With things inanimate, whose changeless forms
No storms of human misery can wreck,
I could alliance and strict friendship form;
For though the gloomy winds of cheerless winter
Might strip the wild woods of their clothing bare,
Or vernal breezes dress them in their green,
Yet would they not like man, like wayward man,
In summer mock me with their leafless boughs,
In winter *cool me* with their verdant shade."

Though we have considerable feeling and interest in these lines, it will be immediately perceived that they display much of the carelessness and inequality which mark the compositions of a young author; such a line, for instance, as

"Came fresh upon me, and then I thought,"

is a very poor apology for blank verse. The last line, too, contains a conceit which is absolutely ludicrous: we can easily conceive a tree in summer mocking the beholder with its leafless boughs: but it certainly is a mystery to the understandings of those who have never crossed the Atlantic, how a tree can afford *coolness in winter*, because it retains its foliage! It is in such instances as these that we distinguish the immature taste of the Columbian poets. — Among Mr. Dabney's miscellaneous poems are some which, in our opinion, are superior to his Illustrations; and we select the ensuing stanzas as the best specimen which we have seen of the American war-songs.

"*The Heroes of the West.*

"How sweet is the song of the festal rite,
When the bosom with rapture swells high,
When the heart, at the soft touch of pleasure, beats light,
And bright is the beam of the eye.
In the dirge which is pour'd o'er affection's bier
How holy an interest dwells,
When the frequent drop of the frequent tear
The heart-rending anguish tells.

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" But sweeter the song that the minstrel should raise,
To the patriot victor's fame,
And livelier the tones of the heart-gender'd praise
That should wake from the harp at his name:
But holier the dirge that the minstrel should pour
O'er the fallen hero's grave,
Whose arm wields the sword for his country no more,
Who has died the death of the brave.

" There lives in the bosom a feeling sublime,
Of all 'tis the strongest tie;
Unvarying thro' every change of time,
And only with life does it die. *
'Tis the love that is borne for that lovely land,
That smiled on the hour of our birth;
'Tis the love that is planted by nature's hand,
For our sacred native earth.

" 'Twas this that the patriot victor inspired,
Was strong in the strength of his arm,
With the holiest zeal his brave bosom fired,
And to danger and death gave a charm.
'Twas this that the dying hero blest,
And hallowed the hour when he fell,
That throbb'd in the final throb of his breast,
And heaved in his bosom's last swell.

" When a thousand swords in a thousand hands,
To the sunbeams of heaven shone bright,
When the glowing hearts of Columbia's bands,
Were firm in Columbia's right:
When the blood of the West in the battle was pour'd,
In defence of the rights of the West;
When the blood of the East, stained the point of the sword,
At the Eastern King's behest.

* * * * *

" Then firm be its base as the giant rock,
Midst the ocean-waves *alone*,
That the beating rain, and the tempest shock,
For numberless years has *borne*.
And blasted the parricide arm that shall plan
That glorious structure's fall,
But still may it sanction the rights of man
And *liberty guardian* † to all."

* * * * *

At the end of his little volume, Mr. Dabney has given some translations and imitations from the Greek, the Latin, and

* To *die with life*, meaning to be extinguished only with life, is not a very defensible expression.

† This phrase is also objectionable.

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the Italian, the first of which seem chiefly selected from the *Græca Majora* of Dalzell.* Of these, we think, his translations of some sonnets from the Italian display most ability. The following is a translation from the *Ostracismo di Scipione*, by Carlo Frugoni, which is ranked by Bettinelli, in his Classification of Sonnets, as belonging to the superior order of that species of composition.

"*The Banishment of Scipio,*

"When to his native, but ungrateful earth,
Great Scipio bade adieu — as one whose heart
Dauntless, in exile proudly could depart —
Denied a grave where he received his birth,
Burst the stern cry of shame indignant forth
From shades who fell Rome's glory to increase,
And to the guardian powers of war and peace
Sad mourn'd the example of degraded worth.
Rome's ancient virtues urged their haughty flight,
And followed him — indignant, as they fled;
Disdainful frowns the proud reproach conveyed,
Then from the Stygian seats of gloom and dread,
Of him who first subdued the Alpine height,
Laughed with fierce scorn the unavenged shade."

"It were in vain," says Mr. Dabney, "to attempt to communicate to any translation the sonorous majesty of the rhythm, or the stern sublimity of the sentiment, in the last line, —

"*Rise l'invendicata ombra feroce.*"

We are next to mention a production of Mr. Washington Allston†, a young American gentleman who has resided for some time in England, pursuing the profession of a painter, in which art he has displayed very considerable success. It is certainly to be admitted that he handles his pencil with more skill than his pen, for his poems are specimens of a very fatiguing mediocrity of talent, and require no small share of patience in the perusal. The work called "The Sylphs of the Seasons" is a kind of poetical vision,

* We suspect that the classics are not very deeply studied by the *literati* of America: but we are happy to perceive that they are beginning to pay more attention to those pursuits; as a proof of which we may mention the publication at Boston of a handsome edition of Ernesti's Cicero within these few last years, which is intended to form the commencement of a complete series of the *Scriptores Romani*.

† *The Sylphs of the Seasons*; with other Poems, by W. Allston. 12mo. Boston.

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in which the versifier dreams that he is transported to a fairy-castle, where he is wooed by four beautiful damsels; who each endeavour to gain his good graces, in order that he may fulfil a certain *dictum* of the Fates, by which he is decreed to become the master of the castle, and, moreover, the sovereign of the year.

We give the description of the young poet's unfortunate situation at the commencement of his vision.

" Methought within a desert cave,
Cold, dark, and solemn as the grave,
I suddenly awoke,
It seem'd of sable night the cell;
Where, save when from the ceiling fell
An oozing drop, her silent spell
No sound had ever broke.

" There motionless I stood alone,
Like some strange monument of stone
Upon a barren wild;
Or like (so solid and profound
The darkness seem'd that wall'd me round)
A man that's buried under ground,
Where pyramids are pil'd."

The following stanza from the Address of the Sylph of Summer is rather better:

" Oft by the heat of noon opprest,
With flowing hair and open vest,
Thy footsteps have I won
To mossy couch of welling grot,
Where thou hast bless'd thy happy lot,
That thou in that delicious spot
May'st see, not feel, the sun."

Mr. Allston's " Paint King," in Monk Lewis's stanza, is said to have obtained some popularity in America, but our limits will not allow us to transcribe it.

We have read with considerable pleasure a small volume by Mr. Maxwell *, which contains what we should call agreeable poetry, without any pretensions to the sublime, but written in an easy and lively style. The compositions are quite of the French school, sometimes resembling Pope, and sometimes like Waller or Prior. The first is a translation or rather an imitation of one of Ovid's Epistles, (*Ariadne to Theseus*,) written in a very clever manner. In the " Bards of Columbia," an epistle addressed to Dr. Dwight, Mr. Maxwell gives us a considerable insight into the opinions of

* *Poems* by William Maxwell, Esq. 12mo. Philadephia.

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his countrymen on the subject of poetry and their own poets.

" Then try the people; they are fond of rhymes,
The true Mæcenas's of modern times!
Why yes, they read — but foreign bards alone,
And have no sort of patience with our own;
Thinking that poems, like Madeira wine,
Must cross the sea to mellow and refine.
And sure a fellow must be worse than frantic,
To write a song this side of the Atlantic,
In this vile clime 'beneath our shifting skies,
Where fancy sickens, and where genius dies.'

" Our friends the people cannot do amiss;
Yet right in all things, they are wrong in this.
For like true patriots they should lend their aid
To help us native rhymers in our trade,
And buy our verses merely as home made.
While Britain and Columbia could agree,
Nor spoil'd their faces scolding o'er their tea,
We had I grant no poets of our own,
But liv'd on Britain's charity alone.
Her books were never under lock and key,
She read them as she pleas'd, and so did we.

* * * * *

" Such were our bards, not perfect I admit,
You cannot get perfection at a hit,
For by your leave they wrote in too much haste,
And wanted patience to refine their taste,
But still they show'd we had a rhiming vein
That might be open'd and improved again.
And certainly, if I may trust my heart,
We've all the raw materials of the art:
Just look around with that poetic eye,
What charming scenes are spread beneath the sky!

" Rivers that murmur as they glide along,
To flow unhonor'd with a votive song;
Hills, fields, and lakes, all beautiful in vain,
In pensive silence listening for a strain;
See wild Niag'ra pours his dazzling rage,
And longs to dash his foam upon the page;
Here lovely George, when evening breezes sigh,
Reflects her lovely blushes to the sky;
There sad, neglected, lost Ohio roves,
And breathes his sorrows to his native groves;
And proud Potomac, yet unknown to song,
Pours his bright waves disdainfully along."

The last lines are completely American. As a specimen of Mr. M.'s lighter poetry, we give the following:

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" *Love and Beauty.*

" Love saw Beauty. 'Come,' said he,
'Charming cousin, come with me.
I will shew you such a treat.
Honey! — Oh it is so sweet!
Sweet as your sweet kisses are;
Hidden, too, you needn't care.'
Beauty yielded. Love quite gay,
Smiling to her, led the way.
'Twas a wild and curious hive,
Seen, too, by no soul alive.
'Here just put your white hand in;
Stealing honey is no sin.'
But the bees! the bees flew out,
Stinging wildly all about.
Ah! poor Beauty's melting cries!
Love flies off; and as he flies,
'Take my share, too, if you please,
I love honey; but not bees.' "

This little composition has considerable merit. It is touched with a beautifully fine pencil; and Moore himself could scarcely have painted a more sprightly little picture.

We have formerly taken notice of the *Airs of Palestine*, by Mr. Pierpont *, a poem written (we believe) to be recited at a charitable musical festival; and of which, although it contains some good versification, we could not speak altogether very favourably.

If we had more space, we could give our readers a few entertaining selections from a volume which furnishes some good specimens of American style and taste. † It is a fictitious narrative of the life of a young sailor-minstrel, — the juvenile Petrarch of the western world. After a very copious memoir of the unfortunate Edmund by his "early companion and intimate friend," we are presented with a series of poems almost exclusively addressed to the mistress of the young bard, *Licea*, written apparently on different occasions, and under various circumstances; such, for instance, as the following, with which we are made acquainted in a note by the editor: "This little poem I transcribed *from the door of the church*, where it was originally written. It was occasioned by Licea's making the pulpit a donation of rich velvet, with other decorations." Again; "Straying with Licea on a summer's morning, along the banks of a streamlet, listening to her engaging

* See Review, vol. lxxxviii. p. 206. (February, 1819.)

† *Minstrelsy of Edmund the Wanderer.* Collected by his early Companion, and intimate Friend, Lieutenant Spence, of the United States' Navy. 8vo. New York.

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and innocent tongue, on the subject of long life, and the want of enjoyments in old age, gave rise to the following unfinished effusion."

We select one of the best sonnets in this curious volume.

"*Sonnet.*

"Give me my flute, I said, whose melting voice
Once mingled with my love's delicious lay;
Why am I sad, when all around rejoice,
When Nature smiles, and every heart is gay?
I took the flute, for melody once dear;
I touch'd its keys, but all its charm was o'er.
The music, once delightful to my ear,
Breath'd on that ear in harmony no more.
Harsh as the murmurs of the midnight wind
Were those sweet sounds which won my Licea's praise;
They sooth'd not sorrow, but recall'd to mind
Departed joys, and ne'er returning days;
And now it silent and neglected lies:
If woke, 'tis only with my breathing sighs."

We have forborne to speak of the *Conquest of Canaan*, by Dr. Dwight, or the *Columbiad* of Joel Barlow, because those poems have long been partially known to the English. Mr. Barlow's *Vision of Columbia* was mentioned by us so long ago as in the year 1788. See vol. lxxviii. p. 248. Those persons, who wish to examine more particularly the works and merits of the trans-Atlantic bards, may meet with a great variety of authors whose compositions are, we believe, unknown on this side the Atlantic. "*The Bridal of Vaumond*," a poem written in imitation of Sir Walter Scott's style, will scarcely bear a perusal; which we fear may also be said of several others. "*The Backwoodsman*" possesses considerable merit, and is curious from the subject and the manners which it pourtrays. The late Mr. Alsop of Middletown several years since published some poems and translations, among which is one from the Italian of Berni, intitled "*The Fairy of the Lake*:" they are said to be creditable to their author.

It is certainly but fair that, in return for the great supply of poetry which we export to America, we should receive the best merchandise of this kind which that country affords, however inferior it may be in value.

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ART. X. ZHTHMATA ΔIANOHTIKA: or a View of the Intellectual Powers of Man: with Observations on their Cultivation, adapted to the present State of this Country. Read in the Literary and Philosophical Society of Liverpool. 8vo. pp. 53. Longman and Co. &c. 1819.

THE author of these intellectual inquiries asks in his preface, if a reflecting person were to read attentively the eminent writers, antient and modern, on the subject of human intellect, what leading ideas would remain impressed on his mind? and he justly adds, that a work comprising such ideas in a small compass has been long wanted. It has here been attempted.

In the introduction, it is observed that the foundation of every improvement in the condition of man is his intellectual cultivation: that the principal sense in which thought originates is sight: that, in consequence, the metaphors employed to designate internal phænomena have chiefly been borrowed from visible phænomena; (thus *idea* is the form, figure, or shape of an object not really present; *imagination* is the power of calling back such ideas;) and that probably the distinctness, vividness, and rapidity of the ideas depend on the corresponding qualities of the sensations in which they originate.

Sensation is analyzed next; and its varieties are ascribed partly to original organization, partly to the different degrees of attention which different persons pay to their sensations. To the latter cause is ascribed the predominant influence; and the important moral inference is drawn, that on the early habit of bending our minds to our sensations depends the chief intellectual difference between man and man. This inquiry should have preceded the matter concerning ideas.

Memory is the topic of the ensuing section. That we are ignorant of its immediate cause is acknowleged; and it is defined to be an internal power, by which ideas are transmitted from nearly the commencement of life to nearly its close. The influence of the will on the memory is discussed; and the voluntary exertion of recollection is stated to be an acquired faculty, a result of effort and practice, like walking. To those who would avoid error and discern truth, the study of languages is emphatically recommended.

We are next called to contemplate *association*. This word is seldom used with precision, especially by the followers of Hartley, to whose opinions more deference is shewn in this work than is worthy of so judicious a writer. Association means to bring into company what was before separate. Hence, of ideas which have their archetypes in nature, the parts

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parts are not associated; they always were concatenated, and always will remain so. Locke proposes to call those ideas *real* which preserve external impressions; and those ideas *fantastical* which are formed by association out of remembered fragments, but which do not correspond with any specific external object. This composition, to borrow the words of Hobbes, is that which we commonly term fiction of the mind. Hence, in whatever degree associations are substituted for impressions in the process of thinking, in that degree our ideas are likely to vary from truth, to foster prejudice, and to confirm error. Truth is the correspondence between ideas and things; association is at best but the internal imitation of this correspondence. Associations called by the same name often differ in different minds. An excellent history of the literature of the doctrine of association closes this section.

A good chapter follows on *Dissociation*. It is justly observed, (p. 32.) though in direct contradiction to Locke, that simple ideas are formed by dissociation, the impressions of sense being commonly in a state of combination, or complex. The originality of this section tempts us to copy from it.

'The word abstraction is often used vaguely: when it means taking away idea from idea, it is the same with dissociation; a power without which we could scarcely form any simple ideas; the impressions of the senses being commonly in a state of combination.

'Whatsoever ideas pass, inaccurately compared, into combination, or into combinations of combinations; and having so passed, become involved, perplexed, confused; they are still liable to separation; the mind of man, through all successive generations, continuing to possess, and to exercise, the power of searching into itself and separating its ideas. Leaves follow leaves, and trees, trees, to decay: but as the globe continues to be accessible to man, and to be an object of his research, is there a forest on the globe, which he will not penetrate; and when, having examined its productions, he at length knows what they are, will he not convert them to that for which they are best suited and most useful? So with the human mind: will this wilderness, as before investigation and cultivation it is, remain a wilderness afterward; notwithstanding the invention of printing, which has given security to the progress of intellect; and is spreading a light, inimical to every beast of prey?

'The power of separating combined ideas, with distinctness, for the purpose of reason, is the highest intellectual acquirement of man. The most moderate degree of his power *of dissociating ideas*, accompanied with his power *of speech* and *of manual operation*, places him immeasurably above the rest of animals: nor could reason, unallied with these powers, have attained, or approached, the elevation characteristical of our species. All, who have

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have ideas, compare ideas: neither is the comparison difficult, when the ideas are distinct. If a number of threads are placed by each other, of a fineness, which, though nearly the same, has yet, when they are so placed, a plainly perceptible difference; to look at them, is to compare them, as to compare them, is to observe the difference. Twine these threads together; and who, without a penetrating eye, will afterward suspect a difference; or by what means, except by separating the string back into its threads, can the difference be ascertained? So it is with combinations of ideas: they are threads intertwined, which must be separated before they can be compared. We must look beyond words, to thoughts; and the thoughts themselves, disentangled from their intricacies, must come before us simply, distinctly, and in order.'

Reason is then submitted to dissection, and is considered as the result of every comparison of ideas: in proportion to the variety of ideas which a man can submit to comparison, and to the delicacy with which he can detect their differences, is his reasoning power. An inference represents the remainder, after a process of subtraction.

The conclusion gives a brief summary of the preceding sections, and inforces the practical importance of lending attention to sensation, in order to receive distinct, vivid, complete, and memorable impressions; of analyzing ideas, in order to associate and dissociate them voluntarily, easily, and conformably to truth; and of exerting reason, in order to add to the stock of human knowlege, and to triumph over the dominion of prejudice and custom.

We seriously exhort this writer to expand his beautiful, neat, and brief sketch of the elements of metaphysical knowlege into a more capacious and comprehensive treatise.

ART. XI. *An Essay on the Geographical Distribution of Plants, through the Counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, and Durham.* By N. J. Winch, F.L.S. Honorary Member of the Geological Society of London. Read at a Meeting of the Literary and Philosophical Society in Newcastle-upon-Tyne, May 4th, 1819. 8vo. pp. 56. Baldwin and Co. 1819.

THE ingenious researches of Wahlemberg, Von Buch, Decandolle, and Humboldt, have thrown a strong and interesting light on the relative habitations of plants; and the modest writer of the present essay has followed their example, though on a limited scale. Impressed as we are with the conviction, that the multiplication of such local inquiries will ultimately promote the establishment of systematical principles, and of useful discoveries, we cordially concur in his views,

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views, and applaud his efforts; which, we trust, will be cherished and imitated by men of science and activity in different regions of the globe. In the mean time, he has enabled us to state that the tract of country which he has explored exhibits a *Flora* of 1016 phænogamous, and 1160 cryptogamic plants. Having arranged the respective numerical amount of their species, according to the families of Jussieu, he proceeds to offer particular remarks on some of the most striking of them; beginning with the trees and shrubs, and pointing to the situations in which a few of them are most healthy, as well as to those in which they cease to vegetate.

In the sheltered vales of the Tyne, Derwent, and Tees, the Oak attains to stately dimensions; and it may still be traced, though of a stunted growth, to the elevation of 1600 or 1700 feet above the level of the sea. The common Elm (*Ulmus Campestris*) of the south of England is not indigenous north of the Tees, but the Wych Elm is abundant in every hedge, and, together with the smooth-leaved sort, skirts the moors at the height of 2000 feet. Large Holly-trees ornament many of the woods in the county of Durham; and the Yew prospers on the calcareous cliffs about Castle-Eden. The White-beam is partial to soil that rests on lime-stone rocks. The Bullace is extremely rare; and, notwithstanding the frequent occurrence of the Plum, Pear, Black and Red Currants, Barberry, and Gooseberry, Mr. Winch suspects that they are not originally natives. 'The four following shrubs,' he adds, 'are certainly indigenous: (*Ribes petræum*) rock Currant, (*Ribes spicatum*) acid mountain Currant, (*Ribes alpinum*) alpine Currant, and (*Ligustrum vulgare*) Privet: but (*Lonicera Xylosteum*) the upright Honeysuckle, which stands on the authority of Wallace, should be expunged from our Flora.' On elevated moors, and even at the height of 3000 feet, on the mountainous range of Crossfell, the roots and trunks of very large Scotch Firs are found buried in the boggy soil; while this species of Pine now requires to be planted, and, with every advantage, never reaches to the dimensions of the antient trunks. *Pinus Abies*, or the Spruce Fir, appears never to have been a native of this island; although the woods on the continent of Europe, both to the north and south of Great Britain, abound with it. The banks of the sub-alpine rivulets of these northern counties of England, and not the hedges in Norfolk, are represented as the genuine habitation of *Salix Croweana*. At 2000 feet above the level of the sea, the Furze and Bramble are no longer traceable: nor can wheat now be raised beyond the limit of 1000 feet, although lands

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lands overgrown with heath, and situated at an elevation which precludes all attempts at modern husbandry, have been subjected to tillage, as we judge from their regular disposition into ridges, at a period to which neither tradition nor record extends. Here, too, as in many other temperate latitudes, when moorish lands are turned over for the first time, and strewed with lime, they spontaneously yield white clover; a fact which has been frequently observed, but never very satisfactorily explained. — Of grasses, sedges, and rushes, which are more equably distributed over the earth than most other kinds of plants, 174 species have been remarked in the district under review. 'The three common species of Heath, *Erica vulgaris*, *Erica cinerea*, and *Erica tetralix*, also give a peculiar character to the moors and fells in the north; these flourish from 100 to 3000 feet above the level of the sea, but never on a calcareous soil; which circumstance occasions the striking difference between our heaths and the Yorkshire wolds, but more especially the downs of the more southern counties, where the sub-stratum is chalk.'

Mr. Winch likewise adverts to the relative position of some of the poisonous plants, of those which contribute to bind the sand of the sea-shore, and of those which seem to follow the footsteps of man, and indicate his present or his former abode. Of the last, it is remarkable that few or none of them seem to have been cultivated for the purposes of economy. The Summer Snow-flake, the single yellow Tulip, and the Drooping Star of Bethlehem, though at no very distant period they escaped from the garden, have continued to propagate in the fields, and have, in course, been admitted into the British Flora. 'On the other hand, the Columbine is truly a native of our woods; and the Rosebay Willow-herb (which, being overlooked in the time of Ray, has had its right to a place among British species disputed) is found on our most inaccessible rocks, and among the recesses of the Cheviots.' We may add that this specious plant is of no unfrequent occurrence in the Highlands of Scotland, and that it is even a native of the wilds of Greenland.

The essayist next enumerates, in ten sections, 'those plants which have reached their northern limits in this part of the kingdom. Such as have reached their southern limits. Those that are found on the sea-coasts, and again on the mountains. Rare species, natives of Switzerland. Of Lapland. Of both these countries. Rare species, natives of neither of those countries. Oleraceous plants found in a natural state. Plants which have become naturalized, though originally imported with ballast. Exotics introduced by the same means.'

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Some of these titles, however, are to be interpreted with a *degree of latitude*; for several of the species included under the first are also found in North Britain; and others that are specified under the 4th, 5th, and 6th, can scarcely be termed *rare*: as, for example, *Geum rivale, Solidago virgaurea, Sedum villosum, Stellaria nemorum, Geranium sanguineum, Myrica Gale, Polygonum viviparum, Saxifraga stellaris, Scandix odorata*, and *Drosera* (thrice misprinted *Drossera*) *rotundifolia*. *Datura stramonium* has more probably reached us from America than from Abyssinia; and *Senecio viscosus* is of such frequent occurrence in many parts of the north, — remote, too, from ballast heaps, — that we can perceive no good reason for contesting its aboriginal character.

It results from the author's personal observations that, of the 3000 species of plants which at present vegetate spontaneously in Great Britain and Ireland, so large a proportion as two-thirds is to be found in the three northern counties of England; which include a variety of exposure and situation, high mountains, extensive plains, shady and damp woods, slow streams, deep and cold lakes, and a considerable stretch of sea-coast, all contributing to diversify the vegetable productions of the soil.

'Though observations upon organic remains may appear out of place among minutes intended to illustrate the geography of plants, yet it may not be amiss to remark, that not one of the vegetables which have left impressions on our shale, sand-stones, and coal *, or on the alum, shale, and sand-stones of the Whitby formation, are known to exist at the present day. The casts which frequently occur in this coal-field are those of trunks of large trees imbedded in sand-stone and mineralized by silex, and their bark changed into coal, but to what species they belonged it is impossible even to conjecture, as no impressions of leaves remain; also short thick stems resembling those of the genus Euphorbia, and similar to some African species, mineralized by sand-stone, iron-stone, iron-pyrites and coal, marks of Ferns something like Osmunda regalis, Filix Mas, Blechnum boreale, Reeds gigantic in size, Cones, and a moss approaching to Fontinalis antipyritica, in shale, fire-clay, sand-stone, and especially in clay iron-stone nodules. When erect, the trees, euphorbiæ, and reeds retain their proper shapes, but are always compressed when found in a horizontal position.'

Number 1. of the Appendix exhibits the characters and synonyms of eleven species of the Rose-tree; a large proportion for the north of England, especially when contrasted with South America, in which Humboldt did not observe a single indigenous species. The kinds here particularized are, *rubella, spinosissima, involuta, mollis, scabriuscula, tomentosa,*

* Are impressions visible on the coal itself? *Rev.*

eglanteria

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eglanteria, Borreri, glaucophylla, canina, and *arvensis.* Number 2. comprizes statements relative to the temperature of the atmosphere in latitude 55°, deduced from a meteorological diary, kept by Mr. Losh, at Jesmond, for several years past.

On closing this unpretending publication, it behoves us to mention that, circumscribed as it is in object and contracted in dimensions, it is calculated to convey both curious and useful information to the botanist and the agriculturist, and to stimulate the zeal of the philosophical observers of nature. In the event of a second impression, we would recommend the correction of the following literal errors. Page 5. *Boch* for Buch. — 7. *Chryptogamic* for Cryptogamic. — 9. *J'asmineæ* for Jasmineæ. — 22. *Raymond* for Ramond. — 23. *Isalis* for Isatis. *Celendine* for Celandine. — 26. *Officinates* for Officinalis. — 27. *Pyraa* for Pyrola. — 30. *Butomas* for Butomus. — 33. *Futicosa* for fruticosa. — 36. *Glaucum* for Glaucium. *Hyoscyamous* for Hyoscyamus. — 37. *Ornithepus* for Ornithopus. — 38. *Umbellicus* for Umbilicus. — 39. *Filex* for Filix.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR NOVEMBER, 1820.

POLITICS.

Art. 12. *The State of the Poor and working Classes considered;* with practical Plans for improving their Condition in Society, and superseding the present System of compulsory Assessment. By William Davis Bayly, of the Inner Temple. 8vo. pp. 118. 4s. 6d. sewed. Hatchard. 1820.

We discovered, the other day, that we had exposed ourselves to the animadversion of a writer who states that our sentiments are generally in harmony with his own on subjects of political economy, but whom we have had the misfortune to displease in some remarks on the operation of the Poor-Laws, which we made in our notice of Mr. Curwen's excellent publication on the State of Ireland. (M. R. vol. lxxxvii.) Having observed that the workmen employed at Manchester, in weaving, received in one year an average of *four* shillings wages, and in another from six to seven, we added, "the poor wretches, thus robbed of the fair reward of their labour, were sent in the humiliating form of paupers to receive a maintenance from the overseer out of the parish purse, which was thus likewise robbed to benefit the masters;" and we laid it down as a general principle, that "no branch of industry which will not support itself, and its own labourers, can be beneficial to the country, and yet is the country taxed to support this unprofitable branch." Such is "the head and front of our offending;"

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fending;" the *fact* is not disputed, but the term robbery, it seems, is too harsh to be applied to those who first make us pay half the wages of workmen whom they employ for their own advantage, and then charge us the same price for the manufactured article as if they had paid the wages out of their own pockets instead of ours. Now, instead of softening down the "harsh" expression, we are inclined to extend its application; and to say not only that the parish-purse is thus robbed of its money, but, which is a great deal worse, that the poor themselves are *robbed* of their independence by this system of compulsory provision: for they are compelled to solicit as a boon that which they ought to demand as a right. The ties of interest and good feeling, which formerly connected master and workman, are thus broken asunder; and neither party is concerned for the comfort and prosperity of the other:— the one is reduced to a state of degrading servitude, and the other assumes an arrogant and undue authority. We are not singular in reprobating such a system; for now let us hear what Mr. Bayly says in the pamphlet before us:

'In Bilsdon, in Staffordshire, the population is estimated at 10,000, and the poor-rate is nearly, if not equal to the general rack-rents. In Wilton, near Salisbury, the rates actually exceed the rents in many cases; and in Salisbury they are so oppressive, as to amount, in some instances, together with the tithes and taxes, to sums beyond the rental. From a petition lately sent to parliament, by the parish of Wornbridge, in Salop, it appears, that the whole population was 1900, of whom 620 were chargeable to the parish as paupers: that the whole annual sum rateable to the support of the poor, was 1605l. 3s. 7d., and that the expenditure of three months was 602l. 7s. 4d., being a sum considerably beyond the rental of the whole parish for the same space of time. In most of the woollen-cloth manufacturing towns in the west of England, the rates are exceedingly oppressive, and in many places it has become a common practice to make a most unjust perversion of the original object of the system, for the sake of serving the private interests of individuals. Both the farmer and manufacturer adjust the wages of their work-people, according to the amount of allowance which they receive from the rates, and in small villages, where either of these characters serves the office of overseer, he contrives to allow his dependents such a sum from the poor-rates as will make them content with a deficiency. By means of this nefarious trick, other persons possessing property in a parish are made to contribute to the wages of workmen with whom they have no concern.

'Now what are the effects, or rather who can trace the consequences of this increasingly oppressive institution? Do we not behold in it a complete nursery for pauperism, with all its train of evils? The long list on the assize calendars, the mournful prostitution in the public streets, and the mortality of the children of the poor, proclaim the abject and unhappy situation in which the peculiar objects of it are involved. The interests of the agriculturist, and his labourers, are become opposed to each other. The

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forced contributions exacted from the farmers act as a direct tax on their profits, and oblige them to enhance the prices of most of the necessaries of life, such as corn, meat, wool, and other articles, so that the poor are made to refund a great part of what they receive in paying exorbitantly for nearly all they consume. In many places they are by far the severest sufferers, even in raising the funds for their intended relief. Destitute of any employ in many of the manufacturing towns, they are unable to pay the rates assessed on the houses in their occupation, and, consequently, their very beds are frequently sold to satisfy the rapacity of this *charitable assessment*.'

Surely the position, that "no branch of industry which cannot support itself and its own labours is beneficial to the country," so far from being vulnerable, might be deemed an axiom in political economy. Its very simplicity and self-evident truth almost render it incapable of proof. Every species of trade and manufacture is subject to occasional oscillations; and we cannot submit to the imputation of the absurd inference that, in consistency, we ought to recommend the closing of the copper-mines of Cornwall and Devonshire immediately when the value of the ore becomes unequal to the expence of working them; or that we ought to destroy the looms of Coventry, Manchester, Leeds, Halifax, Exeter, and Norwich, immediately on a depression of the ribbon, cotton, or stuff-manufactures; or that we ought to abandon the tillage of our highly cultured fields, and let nature resume her antient empire over pathless wastes and impenetrable forests, because the price of corn was not in the last year, and is not at the present moment, equivalent to the expence of cultivation. We certainly are not responsible for so preposterous an inference; it is most clear, from the tenor of our remarks, that we did not recommend the immediate abandonment of every or of any branch of industry on its subjection to a loss: but that we merely reprobated the obstinacy of persevering to misapply the powers of human industry: of adding year after year to a superabundant stock, and pouring fresh loads into a market already glutted; and we attribute this mischievous perseverance mainly to the operation of the poor-laws, which renders demand no longer the measure and regulator of supply, and which encourages and enables the master to prosecute a losing concern at the expence of the public, as well as to the grievous injury and degradation of his workmen.

Mr. Bayly has devoted four or five chapters to an account of the origin and progress of the present system of compulsory assessment; referring it, in course, to the co-operation of various causes, the principal of which he considers to have been the abolition of the monasteries by Henry VIII.: the change which took place in the habits of the people by the rise of trade and manufactures, and the fluctuations to which they have been liable: the great deterioration in the value of money in the 16th century: the abandonment of tillage for the cultivation of pasture-land: the monopolies of land, destroying the resources of numerous small proprietors; and the prodigious developement of the powers of mechanism.

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mechanism. After having stated some general principles, on which he conceives that all plans for ameliorating the condition of the poor and the working classes should be founded, he proceeds to unfold his own: the outline of which is that a committee of inquiry, or court of guardians, should be established in each parish, to ascertain the state of the poor in the first instance; and that a loan of money should be raised from proprietors, to hire for a long term of years, or to purchase in fee, lands in the immediate vicinity of towns and villages, to be cultivated by this new race of tenantry. The chief difficulty, which presents itself in opposition to the sanguine speculation of Mr. B., is that most of the waste and uncultivated lands are too distant from our towns to be thus appropriated; and the reader will scarcely forbear to smile at the remedy proposed:—'we must have recourse,' says Mr. Bayly, with all the coolness in the world, 'to a measure which cannot beget any possible harm, while it will lay a foundation for the most lasting benefits; which is, to drive the farmers a little farther back into the country, and not permit their meadows and corn-fields to approach so near to our towns and villages.' !!! (P. 79.)—The land thus obtained is to be let on leases to the labouring and unemployed poor at low rents, and in all cases under their real value!—the quantities of land are to be proportioned to the circumstances and necessities of each family; and the person hiring is to undertake, in the presence of the committee, that he will not apply for parochial relief after the expiration of six months from his entry on the land, without a recommendation signed by at least six of the committee itself! The rents are to be appropriated to objects of charity; such as the relief of the sick and aged, and the orphan children of the parish; and for the purposes of the general education of the children of the poor.—A chapter is devoted to the objections which Mr. B. supposes may be urged against the principle or detail of his plans; and another to the effect which he trusts may be given to them by the legislature. The concluding chapter describes the visions of beatitude which float before the ardent eyes of this benevolent writer. Happy should we be to see them realized; and far be it from us to chill the zeal of his philanthropy; or to desire to check that anticipation of rapid and palpable improvement in the moral and physical condition of the poor, which stimulates such men as Mr. Owen and Mr. Bayly in the prosecution of their projects.

Art. 13. *A Treatise on the practical Means of employing the Poor*, in cultivating and manufacturing Articles of British Growth, in lieu of foreign Materials, &c. &c. By William Salisbury. 8vo. pp. 46. Cadell and Davies.

The relief comes to us here in a much more tangible shape; Mr. Salisbury (of Chelsea) is well known for his botanical science, and he is making himself more advantageously known for his application of it. Many articles that once formed a part of the usual produce of our farms were given up years since, when labour was either too high in price or too scarce to admit of their culture: such as madder, liquorice, saffron, and several articles used in

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pharmacy and manufactories. 'Last autumn,' says Mr. Salisbury, 'I saw a barge loaded with Dutch Bulrushes, resting aground near Battersea, on a bank covered with the same article growing in the finest luxuriance and in great abundance. A large quantity of the same I have had collected, and find them for any purpose equally good with those imported.' — 'Why should not the paupers of parishes on the Thames be encouraged to earn their livelihood by cutting bulrushes and reed-mace for chair-bottoms, matting, baskets, &c., rather than the people of Holland?' The new method of treating flax and hemp is explained at large in the present and in a former publication by Mr. S. The annual importation of these articles has often amounted to 3,000,000 sterling: much not having been cultivated at home, from a notion that they were very exhausting crops, and that the subsequent preparation of them was exceedingly unhealthy. The nuisance of drying flax is now removed, because, by the new practice, it is not steeped in water; it is also made to indemnify the grower for exhausting the soil, because the seeds, which were formerly in a great measure destroyed by immersion, are now preserved, and found to be a most profitable food for cattle. One peck of seed steeped in 36 gallons of water will form a thick jelly, in which chaff or cut hay sufficient to absorb it is put; and bullocks, sheep, cows, and hogs, are found to thrive exceedingly well with it. Flax and hemp, requiring great labour in culture and preparation, would furnish a vast stock of employment for the poor of all ages and capacities, in any part of the kingdom; and Mr. S. asserts that a better article may be brought to our markets, an article of more uniform strength and texture, than that which is now commonly produced.

The difficulty was not in *recommending* the culture and manufacture of articles of British growth as an employment for the poor, but how to introduce the employment among them, and diffuse a knowlege of the various requisite manipulations. Mr. Salisbury set about this in the wisest and best possible manner; that is to say, by opening what he calls a 'School of Economy' in Duke-Street, Lincoln's Inn Fields; the objects of which were to hire paupers from parishes, and have the different employments here recommended set into active operation by providing competent persons to teach them. The persons thus engaged were old men and women, with a few boys from nine to twelve years old. They have been taught the principles of flax-dressing, spinning, weaving, &c.; and inducements are held out for parish-officers to send pupils to the school, who are there instructed, and returned to their several homes for the purpose of teaching others. The work done has at present been chiefly calculated for the use of the poor, such as sheets, body-linen, &c.

In some of the parishes near the metropolis, it has been lately found advisable to employ paupers [applying for aid in picking oakum at a loss of 25 per cent. on the expenditure, rather than relieve them without any labour. It certainly is preferable: — but let us mark the contrast. We learn from an account of the particulars

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particulars of the several works performed at Mr. Salisbury's school, that a material of our own growth, flax, which in many places may be raised on lands now waste or common, is increased in value from six shillings a hundred weight to three pounds four, exclusively by the labour of a class of persons who are usually kept in idleness.

We should not do justice to Mr. S., if we closed our notice of this valuable little tract without introducing the high compliment paid to his exertions by one who was so thoroughly competent to appreciate them as the late Duke of Kent; who was conspicuous among a number of benevolent patrons of the school.

"'Resolved, — That from the testimony given this day in our presence, by the overseers of several parishes, where Mr. Salisbury's plan for employing the poor has been introduced, we consider it, beyond all doubt, a most beneficial, wholesome, and effectual method, of giving employment to all persons not otherwise engaged.

"'That it combines in itself the means of suiting labour to the different age and strength of the parties, so that men, women, or children, may be rendered at once useful in obtaining that support which is now wholly, or in a great measure, supplied by the poor's rate.

"'That a barrier is hereby set to the torrent of evils which, otherwise, would sweep away the few remaining sentiments of independent principle, that a continued course of idleness has weakened almost to annihilation; at the same time, a test is furnished to parish officers, by which may at once be ascertained the motives and ability of all persons applying for relief.

"'That, in consequence of the great importation of similar articles, the increase of produce thus effected, is not likely to injure the present manufacturer; and, lastly, that it is a very great encouragement to the cultivation of waste and other lands, in country parishes, by the unemployed labourers in agriculture.

"'(Signed) EDWARD.
WILLIAM GURNEY, A.M.
HENRY GREY MACNAB, M.D.
WILLIAM GURNEY, jun. A.M.'"

Art. 14. *Substance of the Speech of Earl Stanhope, in the House of Lords, May* 16. 1820, on his Motion, "That a Select Committee be appointed to consider the Practicability and the Means of providing Employment for the Poor, particularly in the Manufacturing Districts." With Notes: together with his Protest. 8vo. pp. 45. Harding.

It is impossible to conceive that, in either branch of our Legislature, any thing like an indifference to the privations and distresses which the lower classes of society are now suffering should exist. They may, however, reject particular motions for going into committees on the subject, from the too general or too limited nature of the propositions; or from a consciousness, more probably, arising from repeated and mortifying experience, that the labours of such committees are generally inoperative as to any practical benefit,

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exciting hopes which terminate in disappointment, and thus weakening the public reliance on the wisdom and efficacy of the Legislature. A single reference, — a reference to the report of the committee on the poor-laws, — is alone sufficient to warrant this remark. The hopes of the nation were in the highest degree elated with the idea that now some measures would be adopted to check, if not to stop, the desolating march of this gigantic monster; and the committee were indefatigable in collecting and arranging evidence: but to what practical mitigation of the evil has all this led? In one of his notes, Lord Stanhope says, — and we believe that he might have added more than another million to his statement, — that the sums collected during the last year in poor-rates exceed ten millions! The discussion, however, of such subjects in Parliament, by the publicity given to our debates, is of great use in stimulating individuals and parishes to those local exertions, which we are not sanguine enough to believe can ever be so effectually made by legislative enactments. The latter are generally partial in their operation, and calculated to rouse rather than allay the natural jealousies which exist between the different interests that spring up in society. Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, are perhaps at the present moment almost equally depressed; and, strange though it may seem, the two latter, as it is well observed by Lord Stanhope, have suffered from the very protection which has been extended to them.

'In the papers which were laid upon your table in the last short session of Parliament, there is no circumstance more striking than this, that the distress existed principally in the manufacturing districts. This is indeed a natural and necessary consequence of the mistaken and mischievous system which has been so long pursued, of encouraging exclusively the manufacturing and mercantile interests of this country. Such encouragement was the less requisite, as persons are in general more anxious to find a lucrative than a secure investment of their capital, and consider more their present profits than the future interests of their families. The prevalence of that feeling, the numerous examples which have been witnessed, of large fortunes that have been rapidly accumulated by such means, offer sufficient inducements to engage in such pursuits. But the manufacturers and the merchants receive not only large present profits, but are also practically relieved from many of those burthens which bear with dreadful weight upon the other classes of the community. They contribute nothing to the support of the clergy; they contribute nothing, or in a degree too inconsiderable to be mentioned, to the support of the poor: from the enormous, and, in some cases, almost intolerable burthens of tythes, poor-rates, and other local and direct taxes, they are almost entirely exempt. I would ask your Lordships, upon what principle of justice it is that taxes intended for general purposes, should be levied upon one description of property and not upon any other? that one class of his Majesty's subjects should be called upon to discharge exclusively those duties which are common to them all? and that the agricultural interest should be depressed,

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while the monied interest is encouraged in the same proportion? I would ask your Lordships, upon what principle of policy it is that these burthens are imposed upon that class of the community, which is, of all others, the most valuable to the country; which is essential to its very existence, and which offers to the state those permanent and substantial resources, which are not affected by foreign trade, or by the state of foreign markets? Can that taxation be just which is unequal? Can that system be politic, which discourages the most useful and important branch of industry, and encourages all others? Nor is the encouragement confined to the undue and unjust preference which they thus enjoy. They are further encouraged by absolute prohibitions in some cases, by heavy duties in all others upon the importation of foreign goods, by prohibitions and by duties which are intended for their benefit, but which are accompanied with considerable injury to the public revenue.'

His Lordship might have given another instance in the glaring injustice that was inflicted on agriculture, in the long series of years during which the income-tax existed. An assessment of 17½ per cent. was then inexorably extorted from the soil, without the possibility of evasion, while no other species of property paid more than 10 per cent: for the landlord paid 10 per cent. on the actual rental which he received from his tenant, and his tenant paid 7½ per cent. on the rental of the very same soil. Government may usefully interfere, however, in removing some of the impediments to a more extensive cultivation; they may give us a general inclosure-bill, a bill for the commutation of tythes, and a reduction of our taxes. We heartily wish prosperity to those unhappy beings whose distress at home has driven them to the Cape of Good Hope: but, although government is to be commended for its benevolent assistance of those who thus emigrate, we think that it is more intitled to the praise of wisdom in the experiment of cultivating Dartmoor Forest, though perhaps there are few spots in the kingdom so unpromising. Still it should never be forgotten that emigration is always attended with great moral suffering in the first place; that the expence of fitting out any individual for such a transportation is probably much more than would have been required to set his industry into profitable and permanent activity at home; and, lastly, that the parent-country loses the labour of its emigrants, and such portions of revenue as they would have paid in taxes on every article of consumption.

Earl Stanhope has touched on a great variety of subjects in this speech, and has given his opinion in rather too affirmative a tone on some that are certainly of a debatable nature. He deprecates the extension of machinery, for instance, and recommends the adoption of spade-husbandry on a larger scale than it now exists. A discussion of these questions would lead us too far; and we cannot suppose our readers to be unacquainted with the general arguments which have of late been so frequently presented to their attention, as to render it necessary for us to repeat them on this occasion.

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Art. 15. *Monarchical Projects*; or a Plan to place a Bourbon King on the Throne of Buenos Ayres, in Opposition to British Interests; being the Proceedings instituted against the late Congress and Directory for the Crime of High Treason, &c. With Preliminary Remarks illustrative of the Subject in Question, and explanatory of the Causes which led to the recent Revolution in that Country. Derived from authentic Sources. 8vo. pp. 90. 6s. sewed. Ridgway. 1820.

The contents of this pamphlet are as strange and unintelligible as its title; but we conjecture that it was written with the view of facilitating or at least giving notoriety to the scheme for raising a loan in Europe for the liberation of Peru.

POETRY.

Art. 16. *The Chieftain of the Vale.* Hygeia. 8vo. pp. 60. Sherwood and Co. 1820.

We have long exhausted every term of wonder, or of derision, as applicable to the extraordinary and ludicrous efforts of many of our poetical contemporaries; and it were vain now to hope that any epithet of ridicule, or of reprehension, will avail to stop the torrent of metrical scribbling which inundates the land. Still, however, we are obliged to go on, with our well-intended if unavailing criticisms. *Some* effect on public taste, we are willing to suppose, may *at last* be produced; or, if this too be hopeless, we console ourselves with thinking that we shall have left a record for our successors, that at least *one set of critics* raised their voice in defence of the antient good sense and correct composition of England, while "the decline and fall" of every principle of taste were rapidly working around them.

What new species of censure can we invent for the 'Chieftain of the Vale'? He partakes so largely in the silly sentimentality, and violent distortions of style, which distinguish his numerous brethren, that there is hardly a possibility of applying a novel scourge to his transgressions. A few quotations will answer every purpose of critical justice; and we must then leave our readers to add another cracked and empty nut-shell to the heap that already strews their literary board.

The subjoined passage is nothing but a miserable echo of the melancholy misery, pourtrayed with a powerful hand, in the misanthropic and metaphysical "Lara."

'But none could tell his birth — his name —
What deeds he had done — or whence he came:
They knew him by that stern, dark eye
Which look'd on objects fearfully;
And though but seldom seen, its light
Was thought of as some lone star's of yesternight.

'And he would oft, when the heart is in tune
To the beauty of stillness and night,
Walk out in the sight of the midnight moon,
To borrow one ray from its sweetness of light:

And

And he would look up at that orb of mildness
With an eye that had put on the calm of wildness —
With a glance so mingled — a something between
The light that it came from, and that which was seen.
'Tis thus the light of loveliness,
Though seen by the dim eye of sorrow,
With its tender beam the soul can bless,
'Till the spirit of gloom its ray will borrow.'

What is the possible use of this pouring out of bottles of essence into little phials of diluted *wish-wash*? The contradictory nonsense of 'the calm of wildness,' in the foregoing extract, is not an unhappy example of that species of *catachrestic antithesis* which some modern poets have found, and more have sought, as the path of popular success.

'Oh, there be hearts of noble daring,
Roman fire and spirit sharing —
Heroes, at whose call
Thrones might rise or fall —
Who turn from those false lights that blind
The dazzled eyes of half mankind;
Who turn from him, proud glory's son,
Whom fortune loves to smile upon,
And through the night of darkness see
Brighter sons of liberty;
Who to their country, nobly burning,
The phrenzied eye of hope are turning;
And give the wild glance all wildly there —
The last of hope — the first of despair;
Some patriot son of Greece, whose brow
Disdains the shame that marks it now;
Who looks — but oh, how sad to gaze
On freedom's fast-expiring blaze
With the hallow'd remembrance of nobler days!
Yet fondly looks in vain to find
A trait of greatness left behind —
A gleam of light that ne'er should die
To trace her ancient glory by:
He finds none — yes! the fool may say
That all her pride is swept away!'

Might not "any man, any woman, or any child" in his Majesty's dominions, indite such stuff as this, immediately before or after luncheon? — 'The *phrenzied eye of hope!*'

In a similar strain of total *unmeaningness* is the following:

'And there be hearts of tenderest mould,
Who throb while beauty's charms unfold,
As the sweet flower just left by the bee
Looks up, and trembles lovingly;
And leave the fascinating toy
That strikes to please, and fires to cloy,

(For

(For when from virtue lured to roam
Fresh follies keep the mind from home,)
Courting the maid of milder mood,
Daughter of sage-eyed solitude,
Fann'd by nature's purest gale,
The lily of loveliness blown in the vale.'

How often are we forced to exclaim, with the occasional happiness of Brewster,

" Oh say, if Rome's old vigour were not fled,
Could such lines *gender* in a Roman head?"

Again; 'The Chieftain of the Vale.'

'And the two or three peasants that knew him before,
Now wondered at seeing the chief no more.'

Again;

'A lamp burn'd *flickeringly* and dim,
But look'd as if some one to trim
It's solemn light had lately *paid*
A visit to the chieftain's shade.'

Again; 'Hygeia.'

'And high above, the trees among,
The early birds were singing;
And some, who ceased awhile their song,
On the topmost twigs were swinging.'!!!

Art. 17. *Sonnets, Amatory, Incidental, and Descriptive;* with other Poems. By Cornelius Webb. 8vo. 1s. Printed for the Author. 1820.

'SONNETS.

'1. *The Nightingale.*

'Not farther than a *fledgling's* weak first flight;'

Certainly 'not' *any* 'farther.'! We cannot proceed with the '*fledgling's* weak first flight.'

The second Sonnet, '*Invocatory* to the Moon,' commences thus:

'*Queen-beauty* of the Night — pale and alone —'

The fourth Sonnet ends thus:

'Looking among the waves, to find thy drowned Leander.'

The whole of the sixth Sonnet is as follows:

'*The Thunder-shower.*

'Behold, the triumphing Sun looks forth again!
The angry clouds which murmured at his will,
O'ercome by his kind smile, have wept a rain
Of penitent tears, and the storm's gust is still.
We may now leave our leafy-dark retreat,
And shape our course as was our first intent; —
The grass is fresh and lusty, and our feet
Skim o'er't like fairies', leaving it unbent.

The

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The wanton, busy-handed Zephyrs raise
The heavy-swaying branches from our heads;
And now we pass beneath them, and the breeze
As gently falls them down again, and sheds
Its gems on thee, uplooking like a flower —
Or Danaë sprinkled by a *silvery* shower.'

This author should have reflected that, if his companion was *Danaë*, he was *Jupiter;* and therefore his thunder-storm was of his own creating, and will subject him to the imputation of a design against his fellow-traveller, which he should be loth to admit.

Sonnet the twelfth, or 'The Violet,' is in the true modern mystical taste; and we have no doubt that it will be a favourite with the lovers of Mr. Wordsworth's most metaphysical *admirations* of external nature.

'This is the Violet, love — a flower I prize,
For its pure life is thine. Its pleasure is
To live secluded in calm nook like this,
Beneath a leafy shelter, and the sky's
Blue, summer look of clearness; drinking in
The breath and dews of freshness, night and morn;
Hearkening the lark's high hymn; and the confusing din
Which the bee makes with his small-compassed horn,
Himself most pleased by its dull, drowsy hum:
Yet the meek Violet not despiseth it,
Well-knowing he doth serenading come
For what of sweets as alms she may think fit
To part withal — a minstrel beggar he,
Who, when his wants are fed, wends homeward merrily.'

We think that our readers must have had enough, for the present, of Mr. Cornelius Webb. We understand that he is very young; and we hope that he will fulfil the great duty of man, by growing "wiser and better" every day, as well with respect to literary as to social characteristics.

Art. 18. *A Collection of Miscellaneous and Religious Poems;* to which is added, A series of Odes, on various Subjects, illustrated with Original Tales. By Paul Thackwell. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Printed at Ross, and sold by Baldwin and Co., London. 1820.

As we are no advocates for monopoly, in any branches of trade, we would by no means wish to repress the efforts of individuals in the acquisition of fame, either of a pecuniary and worldly or of an immortal and poetic nature. We think, however, that the means should always in some respect be adapted to the end in view; and that it is scarcely less preposterous for an individual who is unendowed by genius and nature to venture on a partnership with the Muses, than for a man to launch into mercantile speculations without the resources of experience and capital: — except, indeed, that we put in the plea of *necessity*, which is a great leveller of those

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those distinctions of "the proper and the decorous" that poets and artists would otherwise willingly observe. Unless it be from some urgent motive of this sort, we cannot satisfactorily account for the innumerable specimens of art and literature which daily crowd on us, and which can reflect little credit on the talents or taste of the parties from whom they emanate; poets, painters, and politicians, of the second and third degree. We do not mean to advance this remark in the shape of a reproach, but rather to state it as a misfortune that is, perhaps, unavoidable; and therefore we all, in our vocation, continue, with Christian patience and resignation, to write, to read, and to review the more imperfect productions of the mind, as well as its lofty master-pieces. When, however, they fall below a certain point, we would advise our poets seriously to consider the matter, and would address them in the words of a brother-bard:—

"*Principiis obsta; serò medicina paratur,*
Cùm mala per longas convaluere moras."

We cannot perceive in the poems of Mr. Thackwell those seeds of power, or that promise of better things, which are so absolutely essential to future distinction in an art that boasts many and great candidates: yet a feeling, gentle, and humane spirit pervades some of his poetic efforts, to which we are happy to give our cordial approbation. The poetry of the heart, however unpolished, possesses a beauty of its own.

'Oh, no! humanity, bright gem,
Sweetest balm of human care!
Shall clear the eyes that sorrows dim,
And put to flight despair.
Sure, thou'rt the benison of Heaven,
To erring mortals kindly giv'n,
Sad suff'ring's advocate;
A glance from thy benignant eye
Shall make distress and anguish fly,
And gladness reinstate.'

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Early Education;* or the Management of Children considered with a View to their future Character. By Miss Appleton, Author of "Private Education," &c. 8vo. pp. 339. 10s. 6d. Boards. Whittakers. 1820.

The first part of this book, which may be considered as hints to nursery-maids, is sensible and reasonable; containing such remarks as experience suggests to most mothers, with such maxims of prudence as a little observation and a little reflection approve to be just. This part is intitled 'the Passions of Children.'—The second part bears the name of 'Morality of Children, or Virtues', and contains a series of themes at least as grave as they are recondite, on the subjects of truth, mercy, forbearance, modesty, generosity, temperance, industry, and fortitude. This is followed by

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by a third part, termed 'Religion of Childhood.' Miss Appleton takes an opportunity to observe, in a note, 'that it may seem presumptuous in the author to endeavour at an explanation of the religion of our church to well educated mothers; nevertheless it must be remembered, *that the whole work is to be applied to children;* secondly, however impertinent a discourse upon ordinary subjects, which have been discussed before, may seem, religion is one, and the only one, of which we may be interested in taking a view, from the hand of the learned commentator and bishop down to that of the plain theorist.' The most abstruse points of divinity are here made the ground-work of what Miss Appleton calls *religion for children;* and doctrines, which others would have instilled in more advanced youth, or have contemplated at maturity, she deems it more advisable to inculcate at once in the nursery. She has therefore collected together from Stackhouse, Prideaux, and Rollin, accounts that have been given by antient writers of some of the characters in the Old Testament; and her pages accordingly are bespangled with the names of Apollodorus, Apollonius Rhodius, Herodotus, Strabo, Arrian, and Diodorus.

Three other parts are added; one on the instruction of children, the next on their amusements, and the last on books suited for them; but none of these portions of the treatise contain any thing very novel. Appended are remarks on a few juvenile works, which will probably be found the most useful part of the volume. Miss Appleton's manner is too much marked by pedantry, and by inflation of language, which are sadly out of place any where, but never so much to be deprecated as in a work on the management of children.

AGRICULTURE.

Art. 20. *The President's Report to the Workington Agricultural Society,* 1819. 8vo. pp. 93. Harding. 1820.

Under the auspices of Mr. Curwen, with the spur of his example, the facility of obtaining his advice, and the advantage of his numerous experiments, the immense progress which agriculture is making in the northern part of our island cannot surprize us; nor do we wonder at being informed by him, (without any allusion to his own exertions,) that this progress is not less to be admired for the correctness of the system pursued, than for the rapidity with which its improvements have not only been made but permanently established. Within the last twelve years, upwards of 200,000 acres have been inclosed in the county of Cumberland, and the greater part brought into cultivation, much to the advantage of the public '*and the labouring community.* — I wish I could add,' Mr. Curwen continues, 'with fair remuneration to those who have expended their time and capital on such beneficial undertakings.' With deference to the worthy President, we must remark that the advantage of employment which these extensive inclosures have given to the labouring poor is not without its alloy; nor do the farmers seem to have been inattentive to their personal remuneration. The rents of the county

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have been reduced 10 or even 20 per cent., and the greatest reduction has taken place on the worst lands. This is just as it should be: but, alas, the price of labour has also undergone a frightful reduction — from thirteen shillings a week to eight!

'These peaceable, regular, industrious, individuals, feel great difficulty in abstaining from parish assistance to support themselves and families, which, in some instances, cannot be avoided, after existing under the pressure of every possible privation. Higher prices of grain, which afforded to them a better rate of wages, was a more comfortable state of things: as victual has fallen in price, wages have decreased; and, instead of deriving any assistance from this circumstance, they have been subjected to increased hardships.'

The inclosure of wastes has procured for the county a vast improvement in roads, and has extended one employment of useful labour, namely, the repair of them: but still the wretched labourers are badly paid; though Mr. Curwen gives a most gratifying account of their moral qualities. As parents, he says, they are perhaps faultily indulgent to their children; as servants, obedient and diligent; as friends, kind-hearted, affectionate, and ready to spare the mite which they want themselves, to assist a neighbour in distress. Some writers have asserted that the labouring class of people pay no taxes. Can a poor man season his dry crust even with a red herring, without paying a tax on the salt with which that herring is cured? There is scarcely any thing that he can eat, drink, wear, or even behold, that is not taxed. Mr. Curwen says that, when the last heavy duty on leather took place, a decrease in the wages of labour became general throughout the country: so that the labourer, instead of getting an increase of wages equivalent to his share of the tax, pays not only his own share of that tax for himself, wife, and children, but likewise the share of his employer, *his* wife, and *his* children! The common labourer, with five in family, is estimated to pay to government about one-ninth of his earnings; — of those earnings which altogether do not afford him the means of subsistence. He is compelled to sacrifice, annually, six weeks of his daily labour for the payment of government-duties and taxes on the necessaries for his subsistence! 'Were the aggregate amount of the poor's rate capable of such a dissection, I do not think, (says Mr. Curwen, p. 34.) that I should over-rate the proportion paid in that shape for state taxes at 2,000,000l. per annum.'

Although the President's report is particularly addressed to the Workington Agricultural Society, we know of few districts in which it may not be read with advantage. The zeal of Mr. Curwen, enlightened by science and regulated by prudence, is not suffered to waste itself in blind fantastic schemes: his experiments sometimes fail, like those of other people; and he discovers, in the course of his peregrinations to different parts of the kingdom, that he has much to unlearn, as well as something to learn: but his experiments are perhaps as advantageous *to others* when they fail as when they prosper; and, in the address before us, he is by no means

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means sparing of the reprobation which, he thinks, certain parts of his own system of farming have deserved. The Report is preceded by an introduction, in which some topics relating to political economy are touched with Mr. Curwen's usual sagacity.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 21. *The Huntingdon Peerage;* comprising a detailed Account of the Evidence and Proceedings connected with the recent Restoration of the Earldom; together with the Report of the Attorney-General on that Occasion. To which is prefixed, a Genealogical and Biographical History of the illustrious House of Hastings, including a Memoir of the present Earl and his Family. The whole interspersed with a Variety of curious historical and legal Matter; and several original Letters and incidental Anecdotes of distinguished Individuals concerned. By Henry Nugent Bell, Esq., Student of the Inner Temple. 4to. pp. 403. (With Portraits.) 2l. 2s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1820.

It seems to be Mr. Bell's notion that a title-page should exhibit an abridgment of the book, and that a book should contain every thing that can possibly be said on the subject: but, certainly, many occurrences relating to the life of the present Earl of Huntingdon, and to the means by which he was enabled to establish his claim to the peerage, are extremely curious and interesting; and we are therefore indebted to Mr. B. for his detail of them. Of a certain nobleman, now abroad, of high rank and character, connected with these proceedings and occurrences, we do not deem it right to determine harshly, his cause unpleaded, and he himself absent: but much appears that requires full explanation; and we doubt not, both from public rumour and from particular circumstances in the political world which are obvious to remark, that this nobleman's return from his foreign station may be expected ere long. In the mean while, every body must admit that Lord Huntingdon is under great obligations to Mr. Bell, who has decidedly manifested singular industry, activity, and talent, in his Lordship's service: but, at the same time, we must confess that we have not observed through the whole work, wherever he has been compelled by the nature of the subject to speak of his own exertions, the least symptom of false delicacy or unnecessary reserve respecting them. The style of composition, also, which Mr. Bell has adopted for recording his own exploits, is filled with puerilities. In page after page, we have joke sown thick upon joke; and our ears are filled with, "a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush," his own "Pilgrim's Progress," Don Quixote, or the Knight of the Marble Charger, the patience of Job, or the quills upon the fretful porcupine. — In 'the genealogical and biographical history,' as he terms one part of his work, 'of the illustrious house of Hastings,' some amusing passages are interspersed; among which must be ranked the character of Henry Hastings of Woodlands, said to be written by the famous Lord Shaftesbury. It has certainly much *naïveté*, and many touches

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touches of a master's pencil; and it is so good and lively a picture of the thorough-bred country-gentleman and Nimrod, of the 16th and 17th centuries, that we should have pleasure in transcribing it, had it not of late met our eyes, and probably therefore those of our readers, in other publications; though we cannot exactly say where at this moment.

Art. 22. *Letters from Germany and Holland, during the Years* 1813, 1814; containing a detailed Account of the Operations of the British Army in those Countries, and of the Attacks upon Antwerp and Bergen-op-zoom, by the Troops under the Command of General Sir Thomas Graham, K. B. Crown 8vo. pp. 206. 7s. Boards. Underwood. 1820.

In a short address to the reader, the editor assures us that these Letters 'have been printed from the originals, which were written at the times and places indicated; and that he has not interfered either with the matter or manner of their contents.' One of the letters closes with an extract from a general order of Sir Thomas Graham, at full length, though it is merely expressive of his approbation of the troops under his service; and another of them concludes with a regular list of the killed, wounded, and missing. Several more of the letters are illustrated by official documents, introduced in the form of notes, we presume by the editor; who, in one place, tells us that 'he has suppressed the remainder of the letter, that he might give an account of the battle of Leipsic in the words of one than whom there is not a more gallant soldier in any army, or in any country.' Then follows a letter, at full length, of General Sir Charles Stewart to the Secretary of State for the War Department, dated Leipsic, October 19. 1813. These materials present us with nothing worth knowing, of which the public has not been informed six years ago. The volume, therefore, appears rather too late to possess the interest which belongs to fresh details of important actions and heroic achievements, but will be read with satisfaction by those to whom the events recorded in it have any particular attraction. Prefixed is a map of the fortress of Bergen-op-Zoom.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We cannot at present give the requested information to our friend *X. A. B.*, but we hope that we shall be enabled to satisfy him in a short time.

R. C. is intitled to our acknowlegements for his politeness, but we cannot enter in this place on any discussion of the matter contained in his letter.

Mr. Whiteley's publication was reviewed by us so long ago as October, 1817, vol. lxxxiv. p. 223.

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THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1820.

ART. I. *Memoirs of John Duke of Marlborough*; with his original Correspondence: collected from the Family Records at Blenheim, and other authentic Sources. Illustrated with Portraits, Maps, and Military Plans. By William Coxe, M.A. F.R.S. F.S.A. Archdeacon of Wilts. 4to. 3 Vols. pp. 551. 624. 680. 9l. 9s. Boards. (Or 6 Vols. 8vo. 5l. 5s.) Longman and Co. 1818, 1819.

OUR report of this large and valuable addition to our historical stores has been retarded, partly by the delay in printing the quarto volumes, which appeared one by one, and partly by the wish to include in that notice the second and less expensive edition. We are now enabled to proceed to the performance of our critical duty; which we execute with pleasure in the case of a work devoted to one of the most distinguished characters in English annals, and of which the writer is intitled to hold a rank among the most laborious and accurate historians.

Of the biographical accounts of Marlborough yet given to the public, the best is that of Ledyard, printed in 1736, in three octavo volumes, and forming a minute and in many respects an authentic narrative: but of which the fault lies in carrying panegyric to an extreme, and in the want of information from private correspondence. An anonymous publication, called the "Life of Marlborough and Eugene," printed in 1742, in two small volumes, is a perspicuous and spirited composition, but contains few new facts. In 1805, a life of Marlborough unexpectedly issued from the government-press at Paris, composed chiefly by the Abbé Dutems, a teacher (or, in the complaisant language of that capital, a professor) in one of its academies. It was written in a lively style, but was deficient in accuracy both as to military and as to diplomatic transactions. The field was thus in a great measure open; and, in coming forwards to occupy it, Mr. Coxe has distinguished his labours by their almost uniform characteristic *,

* See in our Number for June, 1798, his life of Walpole; in our Number for February, 1808, his history of Austria; and in our Number for July, 1813, his history of Spain.

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— a diligent and minute examination of manuscript-authorities. The extent and supply of such research, on the present occasion, were carried to a length perhaps unparalleled in historical labours: the principal collections being the letters of the Duke, when abroad, to the Duchess and Lord Godolphin, forming a minute and continued series of communications from 1701 to 1711:— his letters to Queen Anne; to foreign sovereigns and ministers; to British ambassadors and agents in the different courts of Europe:— the letters of Godolphin, then lord treasurer, almost equal in number and interest to those of the Duke; — and the letters to the Duchess from the Queen, Lord Godolphin, and various public personages. — A selection of military plans, whether of marches, movements, or battles, is a primary requisite in the history of Marlborough; and in this important department the Archdeacon had the assistance of an officer who (see our Number for August, 1811,) has given much attention to such subjects, we mean Major Smith, author of the history of the Seven Years' War, and lately employed in the Quarter-master-general's department. Plans of the battles of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, were constructed under the inspection of Major S., and are evidently far superior to any delineations of such engagements that have been hitherto published; having been corrected by a reference to the latest authorities, particularly the official draughts and reports prepared for the Austrian and Bavarian governments. To these descriptions of general engagements, are added a plan of the strong position of Schellenberg, taken by assault 2d July, 1704; a sketch of the operations on the Moselle in 1705; of the movements during the siege of Lille in 1708; and of the rapid marches in the memorable week (from 4th to 11th September, 1709,) which preceded the battle of Malplaquet. The work farther contains an outline map of the theatre of war in 1702, 1703, and 1705; a map of the operations in Germany in 1704; another of the campaign of 1707 and part of 1708; and, finally, a sketch of the movements in 1711, the last and perhaps the most skiful of the Duke's compaigns. To these are added embellishments of a different kind; viz. three heads of the Duke, taken from distinct paintings, one executed rather before and another rather after middle age, and one from a bust; also portraits of the Duchess, of her daughter the Countess of Sunderland, and of her son the Marquis of Blandford, who was so unhappily cut off in his seventeenth year. All these are executed in a superior style; and, when added to the other decorations and the general appearance of the volumes, they account

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account for what must, notwithstanding, be matter of regret to every friend of literature, — their formidable price.

We add a brief abstract of the contents of the work.

Vol. I. Education and early life of Churchill; his marriage; attendance on the Duke of York, afterward James II.; his conduct before and after the Revolution of 1688; his situation under King William, from 1689 to 1702; accession of Anne; his appointment to the command in chief; campaigns of 1702, 1703, 1704, and 1705.

Vol. II. Campaigns of 1706, 1707, and 1708.

Vol. III. Campaigns of 1709, 1710, and 1711; removal of Marlborough from the command, and from his public offices; secret negotiations of the ministry with France; he leaves England, and proceeds to Hanover; treaty of Utrecht; his return, and his re-instatement by George I. in his public stations; his latter years, from 1716 to 1722; his death and character.

The contents of the work are still more comprehensive than we have manifested by this abstract: comprizing not only the military but the civil transactions of the age, the political discussions at home, the fluctuation of parties, the change of ministers, and the effect of these changes on foreign powers. They include also the negotiations with foreign states, whether conducted by Marlborough or by others; and altogether they form, in short, the history of our country, and of the grand alliance against France, from the beginning of the century to the peace of Utrecht in 1713.

John Churchill was born at Ashe, in Devonshire, in 1650, of a family of great antiquity, and of some property; which, however, suffered very considerably in the civil wars between Charles I. and the Parliament. On the Restoration, Winston Churchill, father of John, was received into favour at court as a true and constant royalist; and to this circumstance, joined to the personal qualities of both the father and the son, we are to ascribe the early patronage of the latter. John made a beginning in classical education, but was taken from school at an early age, appointed page to the Duke of York, and admitted into the army as an ensign in 1666. After a short visit to Tangiers, which was then a British possession, and was exposed to attacks from the Moors, he returned to England, and in 1672 went, with the rank of Captain, in the corps of British sent over by Charles II. to aid the French in their disgraceful invasion of Holland. The troops of the German empire took the field; the French were obliged to repair to the Upper Rhine; the British accompanied them; and Churchill had an opportunity of wit-

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nessing a military contest, conducted on a large scale and with considerable skill. He continued in this service several years, and acquired, chiefly by observing the tactics of Turenne, the rudiments of that military knowlege which he afterward displayed with such glorious success against France. He was already considered as a spirited and accomplished officer; and, enjoying the favour of the Duke of York, he was promoted in 1674 to the rank of Colonel. It was about this time that he formed an attachment to the handsome Miss Jennings, maid of honour to the Duchess of York, and descended, like himself, from an antient family. Their marriage was delayed some time on account of inadequacy of means, (Colonel C.'s income not exceeding 800l. a year,) but took place in 1678. He continued attached to the Duke of York, and was repeatedly employed in confidential missions during those years of political division and anxiety which preceded the death of Charles II. On the return of the Duke from Scotland, Churchill was promoted to the peerage, employed on a mission to Paris, and raised afterward to the rank of Major-General. So many favours from his sovereign, as James now shortly became, produced a corresponding attachment on his part: but an adherence to the Protestant religion was predominant with him; and so early as eighteen months before the coming over of the Prince of Orange, we find him declaring (vol. i. p. 26.) that no consideration of interest should induce him to concur in measures favourable to the Catholic faith: a determination in which the Princess Anne, whose companion Lady Churchill had long been, fully participated. Soon after the landing of the Prince, Churchill forsook the camp of James; leaving a letter expressive of much gratitude for past kindness, and reiterating his readiness to serve his Majesty in all things that were not inconsistent with his religion. He did not at this time anticipate the forfeiture of the crown by James, nor did he (pp. 32, 33.) take a direct part in the vote which conferred it on William.

In 1689, William being unable to quit England, the command of the British auxiliary corps acting in the Netherlands against the French was committed to Lord Churchill; who, even in this limited station, found means to obtain, near the small town of Walcourt, a signal advantage over the French. In the next year, proceeding to Ireland, after the retreat of his former benefactor, James II., had enabled him to take the field without incurring the imputation of ingratitude, he reduced the south of Ireland; and on his return he was thus publicly addressed by the King, "I know no man, who has served so few campaigns, equally fit for command." In 1691, he

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he accompanied William to the Continent, and attracted (p. 44.) the encomiums of intelligent observers: but, unfortunately for the cause of the allies, his services were not called forth during the remainder of the war. The motives of this exclusion have never been fully explained: the generous character of William repels all idea of jealousy; and it appears from his repeated declarations (vol. i. pp. 57. 66.) that he was fully sensible of the value of the aid of Churchill, whom he had created Earl of Marlborough, and who, he said, appeared "never to discover a difficulty when other generals found his propositions impracticable." An unfortunate difference subsisted between Queen Mary and her sister, who acted under the influence of Lord and Lady Marlborough; and to the effects of this female feud is to be added the distrust entertained of an old servant of King James, who at that time (1691, 1692,) was threatening the kingdom with invasion at the head of a powerful armament from France. We can have no doubt, moreover, of William being apprized of the secret correspondence that was kept up by Marlborough with his exiled master; — a correspondence which Mr. Coxe has no wish to conceal or palliate, farther than to ascribe it to Marlborough's solicitude to secure a pardon in the event of James being, by the course of circumstances, restored to the throne. Mr. C. exposes (vol. i. p. 31.) the disgraceful garbling of the state-papers published by Macpherson; and, with regard to the remarkable letter of May, 1694, imputed to Marlborough, and conveying a notice of our expedition against Brest, the historian shews clearly that it could be nothing more than a diplomatic manœuvre, being too late in its dispatch to be productive of injury to the expedition.

Queen Mary died at the end of 1694; and the Princess Anne took, by the advice of Marlborough, the earliest occasion to acknowlege the right of William to the throne during his life. A partial reconciliation was now effected between the King and the Princess; and Marlborough received a mark of returning confidence, on being intrusted by William with the education of the young Duke of Gloucester, son of the Princess Anne, and presumptive heir to the crown. The war, however, was now closed by the peace of Ryswick; the services of Marlborough could not be immediately useful; and it was not till 1700, on the approach of a new contest with France, that Marlborough accompanied his sovereign to the Continent, and received both the command of the British auxiliary force and the charge of the negotiation for the renewal of the grand alliance. The death of William took place in March, 1702; and his last advice was a strong re-

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commendation of Marlborough as the fittest person to lead the army, and direct the counsels of the country.

We shall now attempt a brief outline of the campaigns of this distinguished commander. They began in July, 1702, in the vicinity of Venloo on the Meuse; for so far had the French advanced, having obtained, by the weakness of the Spanish court, possession of the whole of what was afterward called the Austrian Netherlands. Marlborough had an army fully equal to that of the enemy; and he would, from the outset, have signalized his career by a splendid victory, had he not been withholden by the over-caution of the Dutch deputies: who, though quite unacquainted with military affairs, had strong claims to attention from the magnitude of the force supplied by their government to the coalition. The campaign was thus confined to the capture of Liege, and of three fortresses in that part of the Netherlands: but it evinced so much talent on the part of Marlborough, that the Earl of Athlone, second in command, who had repeatedly dissented from his plans, called him at last an "incomparable General," and the Queen was pleased to raise him to the Dukedom.

The campaign of 1703 was, in like manner, unmarked by a general engagement; the operations being confined to the capture of Bonn, and of three fortified towns in the neighbourhood of Liege: but the year 1704 exhibited a very different scene; the invasion of Germany by the French rendering it a matter of necessity to deviate from the cautious policy of the Dutch, and to lead the allied troops into the heart of Germany: hence the victories of Schellenberg and Blenheim, followed by the complete expulsion of the French from the empire. The succeeding campaign, however, proved a severe trial to Marlborough: his plan of attacking France on the side of the Sarre and the Moselle, which had been conceived with much judgment, was foiled less by the ability of the adverse General, Villars, than by the miserable tardiness of our German allies; the effect of which was to restrict the operations of the Duke to the re-capture of some fortified town occupied by the Frenc near the banks of the Maese. It was in this campaign (1705) that, if the timidity of the Dutch deputies and the obstinacy of some German Generals had not prevented, he would have achieved, in the vicinity of Waterloo, an exploit not unworthy of ranking with the victory of 1815.

We are now arrived at the year 1706, an epoch marked by a more acquiescing spirit on the part of the Dutch government; which happily meeting the increased boldness displayed

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displayed by the French, the result was the battle of Ramillies, fought on the 23d of May between two armies of 60,000 men each, and followed immediately by the loss of all Flanders to the French. This signal triumph, succeeded by a victory of Prince Eugene under the walls of Turin, shook at last the confident expectations of Louis XIV., and seemed to turn the scale decidedly in favour of the allies: but the year 1707 afforded another example of the disadvantages of coalitions: the operations of the allies against the French in Spain and Provence being unsuccessful, while in the Netherlands the Duke was again thwarted by over-cautious councils, and found it impossible to bring the French to a decisive action.

In the next year, circumstances became more favourable; the French ventured on offensive operations, and lost first the battle of Oudenarde, and soon afterward the greatest of their fortresses, Lisle. In 1709, Louis once more opposed Villars to Marlborough. The plan of the campaign on the part of the French was defensive; and the battle of Malplaquet took place between two armies, the greatest that had yet met in the Netherlands, each exceeding 90,000 men. The loss of the French on this memorable day was about 14,000, and that of the allies 20,000: a disproportion owing chiefly to the impetuosity of the Prince of Orange, who made his first attack without orders, and before he could be properly supported. Dear as the victory cost, it verified the prediction of Marlborough that the enemy would not venture another general engagement during the war. They mustered a large force in the succeeding campaign, but could not prevent the allies from taking several of their fortresses. A similar policy was pursued in 1711, when the Duke was again opposed by Villars, and carried the French lines near Arleux, in the teeth of a great force, without the loss of a man. These splendid operations, and the capture of Bouchain, closed the military career of the Duke.

Of a work of such magnitude, it would be fruitless for us to undertake an abstract of a comprehensive nature; and the best plan for putting the merit of the author to the test will be to select a part of his subject of acknowleged difficulty, and to determine the degree of diligence and judgment which, compared with former writers, he has displayed. With this view, we fix on the longest and most complicated of the engagements fought by Marlborough, viz. the *Battle of Blenheim.*

The distress of the Emperor having led Marlborough and his army from the Rhine to the Danube in the summer of

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1704, the troops on both sides concentrated, and began to move towards each other in the commencement of August. It was the wish of the Duke to bring on a general engagement, as well from confidence in his army as from the necessity of a signal success to animate the languishing affairs of the allies; and Prince Eugene participating in this desire, they both learned with satisfaction that the French and Bavarian army was drawing towards them by marching along the north bank of the Danube. Proceeding with celerity to meet them, the allies encamped on the 12th of August about twelve miles to the east of Hochstadt; and their Generals, advancing with a guard to mark the movements of the enemy, found that they had continued to march forwards, and were pitching their camp in a long line, beginning at the village of Blenheim. The Prince and Duke determined on attacking them next morning, sent forwards parties to clear the intervening ground, (a distance of six or seven miles,) and in the evening imparted their intention to their principal officers. At two in the morning, the soldiers were called up, and at three ordered to march; dividing themselves into nine columns, the troops of the Duke on the left, and those of the Prince on the right. The advance of so large a force was necessarily slow; and the Generals, preceding their columns, reached a position which gave them a full view of the hostile camp. Receiving, also, from time to time, reports on the nature of the ground in front of the enemy's position, which was covered partly by a rivulet, and partly by a swamp, they adapted their plan of attack to local circumstances. The enemy, at first unprepared, obtained time during the delay attendant on the complicated movements of the allies to place their artillery, distribute their troops, and take advantage of their position. The cannonade began as early as eight o'clock, but the conflict did not commence till between twelve and one; so long was the line of the enemy, and so tedious the march of the troops of Eugene ere they could reach its flank. The first object of the allied commanders being to attack the points at each end of the enemy's position, the assault on Blenheim commenced by a division of British at one o'clock; they advanced repeatedly to the charge, but in vain, the enemy being in much greater force in this village than the Duke had anticipated, or than a sound discretion would have suggested. No sooner was he apprized of this important fact, than he directed his main body towards the centre of the enemy's line, passed the rivulet in its front, and moved horse and infantry into their assigned position on the hostile bank. All was in readiness for a general onset on the centre between

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between four and five o'clock in the afternoon. Tallard, the French General, a man not of much talent, but of activity and cleverness, had made a good disposition of the portion of force which was reserved for his centre: the first attack of the allies was not successful, but the second could not be resisted; and Marlborough, seizing a decisive moment for a charge, drove the French cavalry from the protection of their infantry, and cut to pieces or made prisoners nine battalions of the latter. Tallard rallied at some distance, in hopes of extricating the numerous corps posted in the village of Blenheim: but the Duke, aware of all the importance of the moment, ordered a new charge, scattered the remaining cavalry, and, advancing with both horse and foot, separated Blenheim from all communication with the rest of the French army.

The day was now decided on the left of the allies: but on the right their progress had been more dearly purchased. The first attack by the infantry of Eugene had been partially successful; and his cavalry, following it up, broke the first line of the Bavarian horse, but were in a few moments charged and repulsed by the second. Another charge by the imperial cavalry was also at first successful, but eventually repelled: a third charge made by them with equal gallantry, but with reduced means, was baffled in the outset; and Eugene was obliged to rely solely on his infantry, which, after a gallant struggle, turned the extreme left of the enemy, and pushed forwards to a position from which their General was enabled to see the advance of Marlborough and the wreck of Tallard's army. Exhausted as were his troops, Eugene ordered them again to move forwards; and the Bavarians, now retreating at all points, were saved from utter discomfiture only by the caution inspired in the allies by the numerous corps that was cooped up in Blenheim. Towards that village the Duke now directed his main body: the troops inclosed in it, baffled in their attempts to cut a passage through, at last surrendered; and the night closed with a loss to the enemy of 12,000 prisoners, and in killed, wounded, and deserters nearly 20,000 more: the loss of the allies being about 12,000 men.

Such were the leading events in this memorable engagement. The points to be illustrated by the historian are the original positions, the altered movements at different hours of the day, the motives for the respective attacks, and the chances of success under the varying circumstances of the conflict. With regard to the positions and altered movements, the plans inserted in this work are executed with the greatest clearness and accuracy: but with respect to that much

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much more doubtful and difficult point, the views of the allied Generals, Mr. C. is less successful; though he gives perhaps as full an insight into them as can be obtained when the directing individuals are no more, and have left no very circumstantial record of their motives and calculations. The forces, between 50 and 55,000 men, were nearly equal; and the allied troops, though in high discipline, could hardly be deemed superior to those of the enemy: but in the talents of the commanders a wide difference prevailed. A consciousness of this superiority, and the preference given by both the Prince and the Duke to offensive operations, seem in the first instance to have led to a movement in advance; and the determination taken on the 12th to march to battle on the next morning appears to have been suggested partly by the too extended line of the enemy, and partly by that temporary disorder which is almost inseparable from a change of camps. If the hope of taking the French by surprize entered into the anticipations of the allied commanders, it must have been relinquished ere the middle of the day, in consequence of the unexpected length of time that was required for their own preparatory movements: — but on what calculation did they extend their troops, and direct their attacks to the extreme points of the enemy's line at a distance of four miles from each other, instead of moving an overpowering force on their centre? No person will consider as a feint the Duke's attack on Blenheim, or the sanguinary onset of Prince Eugene on the Bavarians. This part of the plan, therefore, is involved in doubt, and is evidently contrary to the course so often followed with success by the French since the Revolution; for in the present state of the military art, a General would desire nothing so much as a simultaneous attack on such remote points, which, leaving his centre disengaged, would enable him to assail that of the enemy when unsupported by its wings. How different was the battle of Blenheim from those of Austerlitz and Waterloo; in which the conflict was throughout maintained on central points, and no attempt was made on either flank! However, if from wrong information, or otherwise, a fault was committed in the first formed plan, the Duke, it is evident, lost no time in correcting it.

After this analysis, we proceed to make a few extracts from the concluding part of Mr. Coxe's work, as a specimen of his composition.

The Duke's private Character. — 'The endowments and virtues of so extraordinary a mind were combined and embellished with no less distinguished graces of person and manner. He was above the middle stature, well formed, and active in bodily exercises. His

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His countenance was unusually pleasing, his features regular, but manly; his eye penetrating and expressive. His demeanor was graceful, dignified, and captivating; and no man possessed, in a higher degree, the art of conciliation. His very denials were tempered with such gentleness and complacency, that even the applicants who were least satisfied, in regard to the object of their solicitations, could not quit him without being charmed by his deportment. He was indeed a finished courtier: but the polish of his manners was derived rather from nature than from art. It was the operation of inherent humility, united with a sweetness and amenity of temper, which seldom enters into the composition of a hero. This amiable peculiarity was not visible merely in social intercourse, but appears in all his correspondence, and is traced in all his actions. —

'He was equally regular and exemplary, in the performance of moral and religious duties. The principles which he had imbibed in his early years were indelibly impressed on his mind; and in courts and camps, as well as in domestic life, he exhibited the same pious confidence in the protection of an over-ruling Providence. He was a firm believer in the truths of the Christian Revelation, and zealously attached to the doctrines of the Established Church. Hence, he was punctual in his attendance on the divine offices, a frequent communicant, and manifested a devotion, fervent but calm, and no less remote from enthusiasm than from indifference. — The operation of these principles was not only felt in his own conduct, but extended their influence to his family, and to all who were subject to his authority. He was never known to utter an indecent word, or to give an example of levity. He even severely reproved those who presumed to offend his ears with loose expressions, and resented them, both as a personal affront, and as an act of immorality.' —

'Human nature, however, is not perfect; and it is with regret we acknowledge, that one virtue was wanting in the Duke of Marlborough, which we naturally attach to the character of a great man. This was a want of liberality, which in him amounted to parsimony. He was thus enabled to raise a fortune, which few subjects have ever realized, and to render his family no less distinguished for opulence than for honours. It is but justice, however, to add, that this principle of rigid economy was derived from his originally scanty means, his early marriage, and numerous family, and observed from necessity, till it degenerated into habit. It is no less just to remark, that it operated chiefly in his private capacity; for in his loans to government, in his buildings and improvements, and in transactions of a public nature, no man was more munificent. Of this assertion ample proof is derived from the splendid mansions of Holywell and Marlborough houses, the expensive improvements at Windsor-lodge, and the completion of Blenheim.'

Mr. Coxe might have added that nothing can be more unfounded than the anecdotes current in fashionable society, or

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or recorded in party-memoirs, respecting the extreme parsimony of the Duke; as one proof of which, our readers have merely to bear in mind that he entered into the most important engagement of his private life without any view to money, although pressed by his friends, and enabled by his personal attractions, to form an alliance with a lady of fortune.

His Character as a Statesman and Commander. — 'His exploits as a General have so far monopolized attention, that due justice has not been rendered to his merits as a statesman. In that capacity, however, he occupies a prominent place; for in the cabinet, when unfettered by the views or prejudices of party, he displayed the same skill, discernment, and decision as in the field. On him rested, for several years, the political system, not only of his own country, but of Europe; and the ease with which he appeared to direct the vast and complicated machine, is no less wonderful than his most stupendous victories. In application and industry he was unparalleled; and he was equally master of the minutest details of domestic government as of the profoundest combinations of policy. Indeed, when we contemplate the vast mass of his official and private letters, we can scarcely believe, that the same hand and mind which directed the military and political energies of Europe could have been equal to the mere mechanical labour of such incessant drudgery.' —

'As a senator, his conduct was marked by manly integrity and spirit, tempered with caution and prudence. He took little share in discussions which were beyond the sphere of his knowledge or practice; but on subjects of foreign and military policy, his opinions were heard with the greatest attention, and produced a decisive effect. He was not a frequent speaker; but his manner evinced peculiar dignity and courtesy; his language was simple and forcible, his matter well arranged, and his arguments perspicuous and conclusive. He did not affect the graces of oratory; yet, when warmed with his subject, his language breathed a degree of feeling and energy beyond the reach of art.' —

'As a warrior, the merits of the Duke of Marlborough, though uncontested, have never been sufficiently developed. — With limited, and often inadequate means, he accomplished the greatest objects; infused harmony, union, and strength into a heterogeneous mass of different nations; and might have stood still higher in the ranks of fame had he not been harassed by the petty passions of those with whom he was connected in command. — Averse by character as well as principle from defensive warfare, he was always the assailant, and invariably pursued one grand object, regardless of minor considerations. He conquered not by chance, or the unskilfulness of his antagonists, but by superior vigilance and activity; by the profoundness of his combinations, the unexpected celerity of his movements, and the promptitude and decision of his attacks. These qualities are fully exemplified in every part of his military career; but more particularly in his march to the Danube, his operations on the Moselle, his battles of Blenheim, Ramillies,

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Ramillies, and Oudenarde, and, above all, in his fine campaign of 1711.'—

'He was at the same time patient under contradiction, and placid both in manners and deportment; and the harmony in which he acted with his colleague, Eugene, proves at once the liberality of his sentiments, and his freedom from the spirit of rivalry and competition. But no feature in his character was more shining and conspicuous than his humanity. Not only the troops, who had promoted his glory, and shared his dangers, but the enemy whom his sword had spared, invariably experienced his sympathy and benevolence.'

One remarkable characteristic of the career of the Duke was that he never exposed himself to a reverse:—"he never fought a battle which he did not gain, or besieged a town which he did not take." This proud distinction was owing, doubtless, principally to the excellence of his combinations, but in some degree also to the period of his command dating from a mature time of life. Without seeking to make him more than man, the reader of his history, who is studying the higher branches of the art of war, will find ample ground for admiration; and if he contrasts his tactics with those of the allied Generals of our own age, of those who commanded against the French in the campaigns of 1792, 1793, 1794, 1805, and 1806, he will wonder that a century should have passed with so little improvement, and that the model of Marlborough should have been open to imitation with so little effect. It is much to be regretted that the Duke did not leave a journal or connected narrative of his campaigns: because such a register, however plain and unadorned, would have explained the motives of many operations which are now involved in a degree of doubt, his correspondence having been chiefly directed to persons unacquainted with military affairs.

Towards the close of 1711, the party adverse to the Duke had gained a complete ascendancy over the Queen; and, finding that his removal from the command was an indispensable preliminary to the prosecution of their favourite schemes, they strained every effort to discredit him with the public. With that view he was formally accused of peculation; and though, in his defence, he proved that the allowances received by him were calculated at the same rate as those which were paid in the preceding war to King William, and applied to the same purpose, viz. intelligence and secret service, yet the outcry thus occasioned enabled ministers to dismiss him from all his employments. He soon afterward repaired to the Continent as a private individual, but with the view of promoting the succession of the house of Hanover. He returned

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returned to England on the death of the Queen, and was re-instated by George I. in the appointments of Master of the Ordnance and Captain-General of the Army.

In the end of May, 1716, the Duke was seized with a paralytic affection, the prognostics of which were to be traced in the oppressive head-aches and giddiness of which he complained in his correspondence during a number of years. From this attack he soon recovered: but in November following he was seized with a second and more severe access of the complaint; the effect of which was a degree of difficulty in pronouncing certain words, that prevented him from speaking in the House of Lords, or even holding conversations of length with strangers: but it was not, according to the general supposition, accompanied by a decay of understanding. Till within six months of his decease, he continued to attend Parliament, and to fulfil the duties of his official situations: but avoiding fatigue of either mind or body, and passing the summer at his seats, Blenheim*, Holywell, or Windsor-lodge. When his health permitted, his exercise was taken on horseback or in walking; at other times in a carriage. At home, he passed his evenings in conversation, or at cards; varying occasionally the recreations of his family with a dramatic exhibition, in which his grand-daughters bore a part. His death took place June 16. 1722, at the age of seventy-two.

Mr. Coxe concludes his account of this distinguished commander by the following extract from Dr. Smith's Theory of Moral Sentiments.

"It is a characteristic, almost peculiar to the great Duke of Marlborough, that ten years of such uninterrupted and such splendid successes, as scarce any other General could boast of, never betrayed him into a single rash action, scarce into a single rash word or expression. The same temperate coolness and self-command cannot, I think, be ascribed to any other great warrior of later times; not to Prince Eugene, nor to the late King of Prussia; not to the great Prince of Condé, not even to Gustavus-Adolphus. Turenne seems to have approached the nearest to it, but several different actions of his life sufficiently demonstrate that it was in him by no means so perfect as in the great Duke of Marlborough."

The Duchess of Marlborough. — Mr. C. makes no attempt to disguise the peculiarities of this remarkable personage, but ascribes to her unfortunate violence of temper almost all the

* The erection of the magnificent structure of Blenheim was a work of many years, and not completed till after the Duke's death: the total expence (vol. iii. p. 641.) was 300,000l.

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misunderstandings which she was ready to lay to the charge of others: such as her separation from the Queen, her differences with the ministers of George I., and her repeated altercations with her own daughters. In all these contentions, the Duke acted with an admirable command of temper; aware on the one hand of the foibles and irritability of his wife, but convinced, on the other, of the uprightness of her principles, and of the constancy of her affection.

'Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough, long survived her illustrious husband. Though at the age of sixty-two, when she became a widow, she still possessed sufficient attractions to captivate Lord Coningsby and the Duke of Somerset, who both made her proposals of marriage in the first and second year of her widowhood. An epistle of Lord Coningsby is preserved, which breathes all the despondency of a love-sick shepherd, and another from the Duke of Somerset, in which the high-minded peer expatiates with great fervour on his long and respectful passion, lays his fortune and person at her feet, and implores her hand, to console him for the loss of his deceased wife. The reply of the Duchess to the Duke of Somerset was highly dignified, and worthy of her regard to the memory of her husband. She not only declined a connection so unsuitable at her age, but declared that if she were only thirty, she would not permit even the emperor of the world to succeed in that heart, which had been devoted to John, Duke of Marlborough.'

It remains for us to add a few remarks on the composition of Mr. Coxe; whose skill in narration can by no means be placed so high in the scale of literary merit as his diligence in research. The early volumes of Hume discovered a mind in which attention to diction was overlooked in a continued habit of philosophic speculation; and a similar result is apparent in the case of Mr. C.; whose time has been much engrossed with decyphering MSS., ascertaining dates, and reconciling apparent contradictions. The fault of his style is prolixity; a tendency to circumlocution; a want of neatness and animation. He is much less likely to please the general reader who desires a striking narrative, than the anxious inquirer after facts, who pardons deficient grace in return for accurate information. To effect both these objects has yet been very rarely granted to the same individual; and how much is it to be regretted that such writers as Voltaire, Robertson, and Lacretelle should not have added the sterling merit of research to the charm of their narrative! — While in the case of some historians we perceive that their minds are highly speculative, and diverging perpetually into disquisitions on law, government, and commercial policy, Archdeacon Coxe confines himself, with almost implicit strictness, to the record of

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of events, or to such reflections as are in immediate connection with them. Extensive research we have stated to be a conspicuous characteristic of him: but he has sought admission to family records, and has dissected masses of manuscript, rather than directed his labours to printed materials, to the volumes that cover the shelves of public libraries, or to papers submitted to the scrutiny of parliament.

Mr. C. follows the French plan of writing proper names, when adjectives, with a small letter, thus: dutch, bavarian, english; a practice in which he is not likely to have many imitators, and which we cannot recommend.

ART. II. *Winter Nights;* or Fire-side Lucubrations. By Nathan Drake, M. D. Author of "Literary Hours," &c. &c. &c. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 18s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

WHEN an author has distinguished himself by several respectable publications, in which he has manifested a combination of successful industry and pleasing taste, he becomes with all liberal readers an object of more regard and interest than the multitude of scribblers who crowd and darken the literary atmosphere of the day. Standing out thus prominent from the mass of inferior writers, Dr. Drake must be welcomed by his critics with perfect good humour, if not with great applause; and there is a reason why the degree of praise which the Doctor clearly deserves should, in his particular instance, be raised to a somewhat higher station than similar merits would generally command. Nothing is so scarce in this age as kind-hearted good sense in prose; — nothing is so rare as that quiet and temperate style of thinking and writing, which, in our better days, approximated many of our writers to the classical sedateness and benevolent manner of the antient sons of philosophy. Excepting the little book of Sir Thomas Bernard, it would be difficult to point out any recent popular composition which even aims at such a manner. The ambition of our contemporaries is rather to *dazzle*, at all risks;—at the risk of good sense, and, by consequence, of good nature. Every thing, and every person, must be sacrificed to the desire of display in the speaker or writer. *Self*, in a word, is not only the principal but the manifest object.

In an æra of such fretful agitation, the repose of Dr. Drake very happily intervenes; and, although we see a thousand faults in these little volumes, (or fancy that we see them,) yet their pervading placidity and gentleness of feeling act, we

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confess, as an efficacious bribe on our severer judgment, and irresistibly command us, already prepared as we are, to "*be pleased.*"

The contents of Dr. Drake's present volumes are sufficiently various for every purpose of popular amusement, although they may be comprized under the three heads of Antiquities, Criticism, and Story-telling. In the first department, we have some interesting anecdotes of curious personages, or events, connected with Hadleigh, in Suffolk, the Doctor's place of residence. Guthrun the Dane, Mary of Hadleigh, (who married a descendant of Constantine Paleologus,) and Rowland Taylor, the Protestant martyr, all obtain their due share of distinction; and the notices which are here found of the conquered pupil of Alfred, the wife of the heir of the Greek empire, and the noble defender of the Protestant faith, are all calculated to increase the attractions of Hadleigh, and to occasion a longer stay of the antiquarian tourist at the *Green Man* or the *Red Lion* of the place. Thus far Dr. Drake is a benefactor to his townsmen, as well as a friend to those who pursue studies congenial with his own: but, in his tale of the Burtons and Bellerdistons, (the most material specimen of his *story-telling* division,) he has launched out into a wider field of exercise for his own powers, and of entertainment for his readers. Here the Doctor has not only given us a sketch of the manners and characters exhibited in the great rebellion, but in the person of his parliamentary hero, Colonel Burton, and in that of his royalist, Sir Gregory Bellerdiston, he has presented us with the most amiable of Cromwell's reluctant adherents, and with the most devoted of Charles's faithful friends.

In a gloomy evening in August, (for such is the Radcliffean tone of Dr. Drake on this occasion,) Colonel Burton enters on the forfeited property of the Bellerdistons in the north of England: but he has hardly taken possession, ere he is disturbed by sundry *night-noises*, and unaccountable appearances. Being deeply imbued with the superstitions of the preceding age, and a true believer in supernatural phænomena, the Colonel feels extremely uncomfortable in his new abode; and not the less because he had accepted the grant of Cromwell, (whose deceitful character had long alienated Colonel Burton from him,) solely with the view of quieting his suspicions, and with the intention of honourable restitution from the first moment of his occupation. So unexpectedly noble a guest disarms the spirit of revenge which had been naturally kindled in the family of Bellerdiston, who lurk among their faithful friends and tenants in the neigh-

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bourhood of their old abode: they consequently desist from the not very worthy task of listening to the conversation of the Colonel and his interesting daughter Emily, through pannelled doors, or behind folding tapestries; and they no longer excite alarm by inexplicable sounds, or openings of secret passage-entrances.

The vast and intricate range of apartments, hall, chapel, and bower, in Kirton Priory; the concealed inter-communication between library, oratory, conservatory, cloisters, and abbot's chamber; the whole apparatus of ruined Gothic architecture in the adjacent lawn and woods; all these well-known *Anne-Radcliffean* and *Charlotte-Smithian* appendages are scientifically, and perhaps somewhat too laboriously exhibited by Dr. Drake. It is possible to be tired of *sliding pannels;* particularly when Colonel Burton, on the very night on which his friend and fellow-soldier Haselford visits him at Kirton Priory, and submits to the severe discipline of a sham ghost of Charles, exhibited by Edward Bellerdiston, draws back one of these convenient pannels, and discovers, — Oh Heavens! — discovers a plaister figure of Charles, with the head from the bust of Bernini, kneeling, in the act of prayer!!! The scenes which pass at Kirton Priory on this memorable night are truly alarming: not only is the unrepentant Haselford shuddering with horror at the fictitious royal spectre, but, at the same moment, the blameless Burton is feeding his ghost-seeing propensities at the royal specimen of *Mrs. Salmon*, above mentioned. The Doctor indeed deals too much in this sort of *double* exhibition, for his volume closes with a *double* marriage; that of Edward Bellerdiston with Emily Burton; and that of Jane Bellerdiston with Henry Burton, the newly-recovered son of the Colonel: not to mention a flirtation between Sir Philip Waldgrave (the brother-in-law of Colonel Burton) and Mrs. Aston, an unexceptionable widow, who mingles with the groupe: — a groupe well suited to the finale of a melo-drame.

Other portions of this tale are equally liable to critical objection with those which we have briefly noticed above: such as the passages, for instance, in which Colonel Burton and Sir Gregory Bellerdiston, or his chaplain, Mr. Melville, converse together in the style of the most modern of book-collectors; and in which the art of bibliography is considered as a complete art, in days when its faintest elements only could have been discovered. This is sadly out of *keeping*. We are also compelled, though unwillingly, to observe that Dr. Drake is yet far from having amended that early viciousness of style, that affected and inappropriate manner, which disfigures

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disfigures so large a part of his former publications. For instance, can any thing be less like the language of an old servant than the following? ' "Of the few, your honour," he continued, "who still wear a smile upon their countenance, there are none, I believe, but what form part of the little flock which gathers every Sabbath evening, whither we are now going, for instruction and for prayer."' This is the speech of a *gardener!* Are we not tempted to add with our friend in the play, "I would not have you be too sure that he is a" —*gardener?* In a still worse manner, because it implies a coarseness of sentiment, (a fault sometimes discoverable in the most delicate authors,) is the subjoined reply of Emily Burton to Edward Bellerdiston, when the latter has proposed an interview in the chapel: ' "Oh, yes," she tremulously replied, "Mr. Bellerdiston will not abuse the liberty I give him."' There is a sort of milliner's apprentice vulgarity about this which we cannot endure.

Having pointed out the species of faults which displease us in this little tale, we shall now present our readers with an extract from it in a higher and better style. We select a portion of the description of that superstitious influence which overclouded the mind of Colonel Burton:

' To these spectral illusions, a species of mental hallucination, he had long been subject. A creative imagination, an ardent but misguided thirst for knowledge, disappointed hopes and gloomy prospects, operating on delicate health and irritable nerves, had originally given birth to this visionary influence, which no after-exertion of judgment or volition could so eradicate, but that the recurrence of any extraordinary event, or sudden misfortune, would bring it into play. Indeed his addiction to the line of reading we have mentioned was of itself sufficient to keep alive this morbid sensibility, of which he severely felt the effects, without possessing sufficient resolution to relinquish one of its most efficient causes. The fascination was, in fact, so complete, that though both reason and experience had taught him that these appearances, which were liable to recur at all hours of the day and night, were but the coinage of the brain, the result of mere nervous irritation, yet he had in vain struggled to emancipate himself from their power, a power alike destructive of his health and peace of mind, and to which he had hitherto submitted in awful silence, unwilling to communicate what might either prove equally pernicious to others, or subject himself to the charge of mental imbecility.'

We omit any farther reference to the injudicious exhibition of the figure seen by the Colonel, but shall introduce the passage in which he addresses his daughter, after the discovery of his infirmity on that occasion.

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'"My dearest Emily," he replied, "it is now in vain to deny what the events of this night have but too evidently disclosed, that your unhappy father is, at times, the victim of diseased imagination. Various misfortunes, public and private, pressing on a mind heated and inflamed by religious enthusiasm, and the reveries of a mystical philosophy, were, I have no doubt, the origin of this calamity; till so morbidly sensitive have I at length become to all impressions, that any mental anxiety, or even any bodily disorder influencing the nervous system, will induce a species of intellectual ecstacy or abstraction so acutely vivid, that ideas and recollections start, as it were, into bodily existence, and, in spite of any counteracting effort of volition, crowd around me in all the mockery of reality. I have hitherto endeavoured, and, I think, with tolerable success, not only to screen this infirmity from your observation, but to guard you against the possibility of incurring, from like causes, any similar infliction. The extraordinary incident, however, which has just occurred, has broken in upon my plan, and laid bare the secret of my soul."'

We should do little justice to the author, if we did not add that we find much to interest and amuse in the fate of the Burtons and Bellerdistons. The tale also displays a very creditable acquaintance with the historical character of that eventful period in which its heroes figure. Dr. Drak eis evidently in possession of ample antiquarian lore, and knows how to give pith and substance to his incidents, by adorning them with the appropriate accessaries of their chosen period.

Let us next attend to that portion of the author's labours which most approaches to our own department: but, before we enter on a cursory examination of his poetical criticisms, we must observe that, in several of these annotations, he has been anticipated by ourselves; and in one or two he has only echoed the praise which we had before bestowed on the objects of his admiration. This is all very well: but it is curious that the Doctor is deploring the neglect or the undervaluing of such an author as Leyden, and seems to take on himself the office of patronizing Mr. Morton's "Poetical Remains" of that writer, just after the appearance of an article in our pages, which is very similar in spirit to his observations on the same publication. In what he says of Mr. Cornelius Neale also, we had either anticipated the Doctor or made a simultaneous offering of our approbation to that writer; though in both instances, we trust, our panegyric has not been rendered less valuable by some admixture of censure.

After all, we must think that a collection of essays, like the present, should not deal *so largely* in extracts from contemporaneous works, some of which are very generally accessible.

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sible. Besides the two just mentioned, we are introduced to Mr. Henry Neele, and Mr. Hunt the translator of Tasso, with several others, from whom the Doctor gives copious selections. We have no doubt of the kind and benevolent feeling which has dictated this measure, and we never knew a writer more anxious to lend his contemporaries a helping hand than Dr. Drake: but, when he adds to his already crying sin of quotation so gross an instance of it as a considerable extract from Goldsmith's Traveller, we must remind him that the "Elegant Extracts," and "Cooke's Pocket Edition of the Poets," have pre-occupied the ground; and that these reproductions of beauties contained in every library are somewhat superfluous.

With the same generous propensity to increase the fame of rising genius, or to draw merit from the shades of obscurity, which marked his early patronage of Robert Bloomfield's poetical reputation, Dr. Drake steps forwards in support of the popularity of James Bird, another Suffolk poet of humble origin. From his "Vale of Slaughden" * the Doctor extracts several pleasing passages: but we are forced to remind him that the song which he has quoted, at pages 198, 199, 200., contains a manifest imitation of the address to Fitzjames in the first canto of "The Lady of the Lake," and we wonder how it escaped his critical recollection. A very pretty simile occurs among the Doctor's selections from Mr. Bird. It is an illustration of the "green old age," (the "*viridisque et cruda senectus,*") which so many poets have attempted to describe, but which few have touched with the felicity and originality of the present writer:

> 'His trembling hand, as 'twere by instinct, felt
> Where erst his sword hung shining from his belt:
> His arm was feeble, — and his sword was gone, —
> Yet, through the winter of his years, there shone
> The high-born vigour of a soul divine.
> So crisped snows oppress the towering pine;
> Yet, when 'tis ruffled by the mountain gale,
> The green leaf shows beneath the freezing veil!'

Some of the other extracts have less power: but, altogether, we think that the Doctor has done a good deed in lending his "*helping hand*" to this votary of the muse, whom we were obliged to notice rather slightly among the multitude of her children. The concluding passage of the poem has great

* Briefly mentioned in Rev. vol. xcii. p. 213.

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merit: it is "musical and melancholy," pathetic and pleasing, in an unusual degree.

We must now, as in duty bound, say a word of the author's own poetry; which, if it does not rise to the loftiest and clearest summits of Parnassus, certainly is not lost in the swamps and bogs at the foot of that memorable hill. Perhaps the best passage that we can chuse occurs in the Doctor's blank-verse translation of a portion of Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered. After having bestowed due commendation on the classical and successful effort of Mr. Hunt, and somewhat too fondly celebrated the praises of Susannah Watts's version, (good as it is,) Dr. D. presents us with a brief attempt of his own in the sacred field of Tasso. Blank verse we never can consider as adapted to the happy rendering of the stanza of the Jerusalem: but we are willing, and desirous, to bear our testimony to the decided effect which is given to the subjoined description of the angel who is sent to Godfrey:

'A youth approaching manhood, graceful, tall,
And beaming splendour from his locks of gold.
Wings of a silv'ry lustre then he took,
Whose plumes were swift, whose edges stream'd with light:
Thus clad, with nimble pinions he divides
The circles broad, and lofty spheres of heav'n;
Till on the top of Lebanon he stood,
And shook his wings with roary May-dews wet.*

'Soon from that mount the holy angel flung
His flight impetuous to Tortosa's walls:
The glorious sun, yet scarcely half in view,
Above the eastern wave was glowing red,
And heaven's elected chieftain, ris'n from sleep,
Was kneeling to his god, for such at morn
His pious custom was, when with the sun,
Yet brighter than that sun, though shining bright,
The angel in the golden east appear'd.

'Godfrey, he cried, behold the hour at hand,
The hour propitious for the work of war!
Then why delay, why hesitate to strike
And free Jerusalem from abject thrall?
Quick bid thy peers attend; the slothful rouse,
Assure the feeble, and confirm the strong.

'* This line, which is from Fairfax, has no exact counterpart in the original; but I have thought it too beautiful to be omitted. The Italian is as follows:

'Pria sul Libano monte ei si ritenne,
E si librò su l'adegnate penne.'

Go

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Go thou, elect of Heav'n, thy post assume,
And willing chiefs shall hail thee as their lord.
Thro' me Jehovah sends his high decree,
Thro' me the servant of almighty power.
Oh, what sure hope of conquest waits thy faith!
What zeal, what love should in thy bosom dwell!
He ceas'd, and to the highest heav'n of heav'ns,
Seats of eternal rapture, soar'd away.

Blind with excess of light, with wonder mute,
Pale on the earth the prostrate warrior lay;
But, when restor'd, on those blest tones he dwelt,
The gracious accents of that spirit pure,
If erst he wish'd, now fervently he prayed
To see the close of that eventful war.
Nor swell'd his breast with conscious pride elate,
That Heaven to him the awful charge had given:
But still as clearer shone the sovereign will,
More ardent and more pure his own aspires,
As the spark lightens mid the kindling flame.'

This, we think, is a very creditable specimen of the author's poetical powers. The great charm of his writings, however, consists in the feeling delineation of virtuous scenes and domestic enjoyments: which is indeed high praise, and richly deserved. From the "Literary Hours" to the "Winter Nights," this honourable and English love of a fire-side at home has marked and adorned the productions of Dr. Drake.

We meet with some compositions in the present volume which, in a pleasingly tender and melancholy train of reflection, attract the attention of the philosophical and retired reader, in a peculiar manner. We allude to the essays 'On the Love of Country and of Home;' 'On the Feelings of Regret which accompany a long Absence from our Country and our Home;' and 'On returning to Home after long Absence.' From the last of these we shall make an extract; and we shall then in our own critical characters bid farewell to an author who, if he has not enlarged the bounds of metaphysical science, or contributed to the combined strength and polish of his native tongue, has written on many occasions in an elegant style, and has awakened the best associations of feeling and of thought in the cultivated heart and understanding.

With true classical admiration, Dr. Drake considers the return of Ulysses to his home as the perfection of descriptive poetry on this interesting subject. He gives a beautiful version of a Greek epigram on that return from the Anthology of Mr. Bland; and he interweaves with his lucubrations

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(which, however, are too full of Pope's Homer) a very interesting passage from the "Local Attachment" of Mr. Polwhele; as well as a lovely version of the

' "*Peninsularum, Sirmio, insularumque,*"

of Catullus, by Mr. Leigh Hunt.

We shall now permit Dr. Drake to impress our readers, at parting, in his own manner. It must, we conceive, be allowed by scholars, and quiet middle-aged readers in their elbow-chairs, to be a gentle and soothing mode of composition.

' If absence from home be felt, as I have described it in a preceding number, it would appear that a *return* to it must be accompanied with many of the most purely delightful sensations of which our nature is susceptible. That this is the result under certain circumstances, and where absence has not been productive of numerous changes, will readily be allowed. But where, as is usually the case, in protracted exile from our native soil, vicissitude and decay have been at work, the pleasure to be derived from revisiting the place of our birth, or the scene of our earliest years, must ever be mingled with a large portion of melancholy and regret.

' It is more especially in returning to the home of our infancy, that these mixed sensations are experienced. The lapse of time has effected so many alterations both in animate and inanimate nature, and these appear to us so manifestly for the worse; we have lost so many friends to whom we were attached, and in those who survive, age and infirmity have operated with such unsparing power; so altered is even the aspect of our once-loved halls and fields, that the wreck of association is at first painfully felt. This soon gives way, however, to feelings of a more sweet and pensive kind, and though still deeply and mournfully reflecting on the instability of human ties, we hasten to gather up the relics of our former existence, and with an exquisitely tender emotion we press the fragments to our heart, and bathe them with our starting tears.

' The recollection, indeed, of pleasures once participated on the spot, with those who were endeared to us by the closest affinities of nature, and who are now mouldering in the grave, though it elicit tears of bitter and unavailing regret, is yet accompanied with so many soothing though faded images of that period of life when novelty and hope, when fancy and the gentler affections threw an unbroken charm over existence, that the result of these contrasted reminiscences is still an exquisite though melancholy gratification; and yet more welcome, if the contemplation of the past tend, as it frequently does, to absorb or mitigate the inquietude of the passing hour.'

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ART. III. Mr. Scoresby's *Account of the Arctic Regions.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 241.]

THE sketch of Zoology which immediately follows the chapter on Atmospherology, already noticed, is by no means the least valuable portion of this work; for, though not intended as a systematic *Fauna*, it contains not only original remarks on many of the animals that are specified, but important corrections of the errors of former writers; especially with regard to the cetaceous family, which has been hitherto very imperfectly illustrated. The arrangement of this remarkable tribe, adopted by Mr. Scoresby, is principally that of Linné, with some of the more obvious improvements suggested by La Cépède. It is well observed, however, that the latter, notwithstanding the interest which he has infused into the subject, and the high-toned eloquence of his style, has fallen into various mistakes, and hazarded some very exaggerated statements. Mr. S. acquaints us that he has omitted even the names of some of the cetacea which he saw more than once, because he was at a loss to assign their generic station: yet he would have performed no unacceptable service to the zoologist, had he described the animals themselves, and left their place in the nomenclature to be fixed when a more complete arrangement than the present shall have been matured.

Mr. Scoresby remarks that the dimensions of the *Balæna mysticetus*, or *Common Whale*, have been greatly over-rated even by some eminent naturalists; and if we appeal to facts, there seems to be no foundation for the frequently repeated assertion that, in former times, when less disturbed, it attained to a much more ample size than at present. Its actual circumference, too, very little surpasses one-half of its length, although sometimes represented as nearly equal to it. When fully grown, its length may be reckoned as varying from 50 to 65 feet, and its greatest circumference from 30 to 40 feet. Other particulars are minutely detailed; and they are the more deserving of notice because they do not always accord with the descriptions of preceding naturalists. Thus, it is observed that, as the fins cannot be raised above the horizontal position, the account which has been given of the animal supporting its young on its back, by these appendages, must be erroneous; and again, *moist vapour, mixed with mucus*, and not water, is discharged from the blow-holes, unless an expiration of the breath be made under the surface, when it is accompanied by water.

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Most of the other species are dispatched in a more cursory manner, though not without some essential notices of their characteristics and dispositions: but the *Monodon monoceros*, or *Narwhal*, is described at considerable length, and with reference to the inaccuracies of the ordinary history of the animal. The account of the *Beluga* might have been much enlarged, and the catalogue of the Dolphins more extended.

Among the quadrupeds inhabiting Spitzbergen and the adjacent seas, Mr. Scoresby adverts to the walrus, seals, the Arctic fox, polar bear, and rein-deer. In the course of his description of the first of these animals, he remarks that the hind feet are not united, as asserted by many naturalists, but separated.

'When seen at a distance, the front part of the head of the young walrus, without tusks, is not unlike the human face. As this animal is in the habit of rearing its head above water, to look at ships, and other passing objects, it is not at all improbable but that it may have afforded foundation for some of the stories of Mermaids. I have myself seen a sea-horse in such a position, and under such circumstances, that it required little stretch of imagination to mistake it for a human being; so like indeed was it, that the surgeon of the ship actually reported to me his having seen a man with his head just appearing above the surface of the water. Seals exhibit themselves in a similar way; the heads of some, at a distance, are not unlike the human head; the resemblance, however, is not so striking as that presented by the walrus.'

As an example of the risk with which the seal-fishery is prosecuted in the early part of the season, an authentic case is reported of 400 foreign seamen and nearly 200 British having been drowned, in consequence of a sudden and violent tempest. — Some instances are adduced of the sagacity of the polar bear; and Mr. S. adds: 'The flesh, when cleared of the fat, is well flavoured and savoury, especially the muscular parts of the ham. I once treated my surgeon with a dinner of bear's ham, who knew not, for above a month afterwards, but that it was beef-steak. The liver, I may observe as a curious fact, is hurtful and even deleterious; while the flesh and liver of the seal, on which it chiefly feeds, are nourishing and palatable. Sailors, who have inadvertently eaten the liver of bears, have almost always been sick after it: some have actually died; and the effect on others has been to cause the skin to peel off their bodies. This is, perhaps, almost the only instance known of any part of the flesh of a quadruped proving unwholesome.'

Mr. S.'s list of birds is such as we should have anticipated, with the exception of *Fringilla linaria*, or *Lesser Red-pole*; several

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several of which alighted in the ship, on its approach to Spitzbergen, and were so much exhausted, though only ten miles from the land, that they suffered themselves to be taken alive. If these were in the regular course of migration, and not accidental stragglers driven off the coast of Norway by gales of wind, the circumstance of their resorting to such a cold and barren country as Spitzbergen, and with such slender powers of flight as their structure and habits sufficiently bespeak, must be ranked among the many problems of natural history.

The *Squalus Borealis*, or *Greenland Shark*, is described for the first time. It measures twelve or fourteen feet in length, and six or eight in circumference, and the oil of its liver will fill a barrel: the pupil of the eye is emerald green, and the rest of that organ is blue. This shark, which is one of the foes of the living whale, and feeds on it when dead, retires not from the presence or even from the threatening blows of man. 'It is so insensible of pain that,' as we are informed by the present writer, 'though it has been run through the body with a knife and escaped, yet, after a while, it will return to banquet again on the whale, at the very spot where it received its wounds. The heart is very small. It performs six or eight pulsations in a minute; and continues its beating for some hours after taken out of the body. The body, also, though separated into any number of parts, gives evidence of life for a similar length of time. It is, therefore, extremely difficult to kill. It is actually unsafe to trust the hand in its mouth, though the head be separated from the body.'

Of Fishes, strictly so called, none are quoted but *Gadus carbonarius*, a supposed variety of the same species, and a specimen which seemed to belong to *Mullus barbatus*. The designations of several of the inferior races are proposed with doubt: but it is well observed that, if their tribes are less diversified in the cold than in the hot latitudes, the numbers of individuals belonging to the same species are greatly multiplied, and thus afford stores of nourishment to the cetaceous and other large animals, or to the creatures on which the higher orders subsist. By a wise and beautiful provision of nature, the circulation of warm currents in the circumpolar seas prevents the congelation of the entire mass of waters, and thus supplies existence to countless myriads of medusæ and animalcules, on which the higher links in the chain of animation depend.

In the Appendix to the first volume, we have a series of meteorological tables and results, with remarks; chronological titles of voyages undertaken with a view to search for a com-

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communication between the Atlantic and the Pacific, or to the advancement of discovery in the North; a table of latitudes and longitudes in Spitzbergen and Jan Mayen; a catalogue of plants found in Spitzbergen; a short notice of its minerals, &c.

Volume II. commences with an historical account of the whale-fishery, which extends to 95 pages. Following the track of investigation pursued by Mons. Noel, the author is prepared to shew that, although the Biscayans engaged in this enterprizing and perilous vocation so early as 1575, they were by no means the first adventurers, and that the Norwegians preceded them by six or seven centuries. With respect to the whales which, at an early period, were fished on the coast of France, and in the Bay of Biscay, he is inclined to believe that they did not belong to the *Mysticetus*, or common sort, but to the *Rostrata;* the former never receding far from the regions of ice, whereas the latter, which feeds principally on herrings and other fish, finds ample supplies of food in most parts of the North Sea and Atlantic Ocean. Harassed, however, by the systematic attacks of the Biscayans, the fin-whales, reduced in number, and apparently desirous of more quiet abodes, gradually retreated northwards, and drew their persecutors to the coasts of Iceland, Greenland, and Newfoundland. The Dutch, and soon afterward the English, followed their example: but it is unnecessary here to deduce the progress of the fishery more particularly, as its outlines in the more downward periods are generally known; and little edification can be derived from the recital of the rival pretensions of the Dutch, English, and other nations, to a monopoly of this branch of trade. — From the next chapter, which treats of the comparative progress of this department of commerce in different countries, it appears that the Dutch, at one period, notwithstanding all the disadvantages under which they laboured, were enabled to prosecute it not only with vigour but with profit; and, as the English are now so much their superiors in conducting the fishery, it is not unreasonable to presume that the bounty may be ultimately withdrawn. At all events, Mr. Scoresby has given us a valuable series of authentic data, which may serve to direct the current of mercantile and statistical speculation on the subject: though we should remark that several of his historical statements are rather needlessly repeated in his comparative view; and it is, perhaps, one of the few blemishes of the work that the same ideas or allegations occasionally recur, without sufficient cause.

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The practical details, which occupy a considerable portion of the volume, form an excellent manual of instruction for all who are concerned in the subject, and many of whom may be deficient in the experience which the author has earned by his personal observation and perseverance. We have not any where met with a more minute and interesting account of the various exertions by which the unwieldy prey of the adventurers is captured, and finally subdued: but the most condensed relation of the several processes would swell our report beyond all due bounds; and we must be contented to point to one or two of the detached anecdotes, illustrative of the perils to which the fishers are exposed. The sudden disruption of an ice-berg, to which a ship or boat has been moored, has more than once proved the cause of immediate and irremediable disaster; and two examples are cited of a boat's crew having, accidentally, removed from the spot only a few minutes before ruin must have overtaken them. The sudden closing of a field of ice on the ships and boats is another and a formidable cause of danger: but the involved vessels are frequently extricated from their hazardous situation by the loosening of the ice, or by dint of sawing, and other manœuvres. In consequence of fogs and storms, the boats are sometimes so completely separated from the ships as to be unable to rejoin them; and the men run the greatest danger of perishing from cold and hunger, or of being buried in the deep. The cases here recorded are principally of hair-breadth escapes from such calamities: but instances are also quoted of accidents which proved fatal to some or all of the sufferers.

'While the same ship, (Resolution,) navigated an open lake of water, in the 81st degree of north latitude, during a keen frost and strong north wind, on the 2d of June, 1806, a whale appeared, and a boat put off in pursuit. On its second visit to the surface of the sea, it was harpooned. A convulsive heave of the tail, which succeeded the wound, struck the boat at the stern; and by its re-action, projected the boat-steerer overboard. As the line in a moment dragged the boat beyond his reach, the crew threw some of their oars towards him for his support, one of which he fortunately seized. The ship and boats being at a considerable distance, and the fast-boat being rapidly drawn away from him, the harpooner cut the line, with the view of rescuing him from his dangerous situation. But no sooner was this act performed, than to their extreme mortification they discovered, that in consequence of some oars being thrown towards their floating comrade, and others being broken or unshipped by the blow from the fish, one oar only remained; with which, owing to the force of the wind, they tried in vain to approach him. A considerable period elapsed, before any boat from the ship could afford him assistance, though

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though the men strained every nerve for the purpose. At length, when they reached him, he was found with his arms stretched over an oar, almost deprived of sensation. On his arrival at the ship, he was in a deplorable condition. His clothes were frozen like mail, and his hair constituted a helmet of ice. He was immediately conveyed into the cabin, his clothes taken off, his limbs and body dried and well rubbed, and a cordial administered to him which he drank. A dry shirt and stockings were then put upon him, and he was laid in the captain's bed. After a few hours' sleep he awoke, and appeared considerably restored, but complained of a painful sensation of cold. He was, therefore, removed to his own birth, and one of his messmates ordered to lie on each side of him, whereby the diminished circulation of the blood was accelerated, and the animal heat restored. The shock on his constitution, however, was greater than was anticipated. He recovered in the course of a few days, so as to be able to engage in his ordinary pursuits; but many months elapsed, before his countenance exhibited its wonted appearance of health.'—

'During a fresh gale of wind in the season of 1809, one of the Resolution's harpooners struck a sucking whale. Its mother being near, all the other boats were disposed around, with the hope of entangling it. The old whale pursued a circular route round its cub, and was followed by the boats; but its velocity was so considerable, that they were unable to keep pace with it. Being in the capacity of harpooner on this occasion myself, I proceeded to the chase, after having carefully marked the proceedings of the fish. I selected a situation, in which I conceived the whale would make its appearance, and was in the act of directing my crew to cease rowing, when a terrible blow was struck on the boat. The whale I never saw, but the effect of the blow was too important to be overlooked. About 15 square feet of the bottom of the boat were driven in; it filled, sunk, and upset in a moment. Assistance was providentially at hand, so that we were all taken up without injury, after being but a few minutes in the water. The whale escaped; the boat's lines fell out and were lost, but the boat was recovered.

'A remarkable instance of the power which the whale possesses in its tail, was exhibited within my own observation, in the year 1807. On the 29th of May, a whale was harpooned by an officer belonging to the Resolution. It descended a considerable depth; and, on its re-appearance, evinced an uncommon degree of irritation. It made such a display of its fins and tail, that few of the crew were hardy enough to approach it. The captain, (my father,) observing their timidity, called a boat, and himself struck a second harpoon. Another boat immediately followed, and unfortunately advanced too far. The tail was again reared into the air, in a terrific attitude, — the impending blow was evident, — the harpooner, who was directly underneath, leaped overboard, — and the next moment the threatened stroke was impressed on the centre of the boat, which buried it in the water. Happily no one was injured. The harpooner, who leaped overboard, escaped cer-

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tain death by the act, — the tail having struck the very spot on which he stood. The effects of the blow were astonishing. The keel was broken, — the gunwales, and every plank, excepting two, were cut through, — and it was evident that the boat would have been completely divided, had not the tail struck directly upon a coil of lines. The boat was rendered useless.

'Instances of disasters of this kind, occasioned by blows from the whale, could be adduced in great numbers, — cases of boats being destroyed by a single stroke of the tail, are not unknown, — instances of boats having been stove or upset, and their crews wholly or in part drowned, are not unfrequent, — and several cases of whales having made a regular attack upon every boat which came near them, dashed some in pieces, and killed or drowned some of the people in them, have occurred within a few years, even under my own observation.'

In his account of the passage homeward, Mr. Scoresby suggests the propriety of an accurate survey of the Shetland islands, and of the soundings around them; as well as the erection of light-houses on two or three of the most dangerous and prominent parts of the coast, with the view of counteracting, at least in part, the effects of error to which navigators are liable, in often taking their departure from the Greenland seas without any certainty of their longitude. — The erection of light-houses on these islands is, we are happy to learn, in the serious contemplation of the Board of Commissioners, and is expected to be accomplished without any additional charge on the shipping.

From a comparative estimate, which the author has taken considerable pains to institute, of the profits of a voyage to Greenland and a voyage to Davis' Straits, the chance of advantage seems to be about equally balanced: but the navigation to Davis' Straits is usually attended with more discomfort and danger, owing to the requisite course of steering, and to the circumstance of arriving in the cold latitude early in the season, when the days are still of very limited duration.

'Perhaps the following may be considered as an eligible plan of fishing on a Davis' Straits voyage. To proceed at the usual season, and in the usual manner, to the drift-ice bordering the coast of Labrador, where whales, though not in great numbers, usually remain during a great part of the season, and there to persevere in the fishery until the latter end of April or beginning of May, by which time the fish at the south-west sometimes retire into the ice or to the northward; then to follow the whales which go north, and attack them in latitude 65° or 66°, where they occasionally make a halt. About the middle of May to proceed up the Straits, try the fishing station in the 69°, then the western part of the Straits, when open, in the 70° or 71°, and on the first opening of the ice near Hare Island, to explore the inlets in latitude 71° and 72°.

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72°. If considerable success has not, by that time, been obtained, to proceed up Baffin's Bay as the ice clears away, to the farthest navigable point, where a reasonable prospect of success is always offered. The farthest point attained in the month of June will, perhaps, not be above the 72° or 73° of latitude; but in the month of July or early in August, the extreme parts of Baffin's Bay will probably be open, and afford a productive fishing station, should all others fail. Thus, the fishery of Davis' Straits may be extended, in one season, during six months, instead of four or five, the usual interval; and, at all times, with a more than ordinary probability of success.'

Our attention is next drawn to the process of boiling the oil, putting it up for sale, the fluctuations of its market-price, &c. Here it is particularly deserving of notice that, if the blubber could conveniently, as in former times, be boiled in Greenland, it would be obtained in great purity, and free from any offensive odour, which proceeds from an admixture of putrescent blood and animal fibre. A sample which the author extracted in Greenland, about ten years ago, 'is still fine, and totally free from rancidity.' The fishery, however, being now removed to a great distance from the land, the operation would consume more time than could be afforded in one season. Besides, a certain degree of the putrefactive process permits most of the oil to separate from the cellular substance, and thus considerably increases the quantity, though without improving the quality of the commodity. Even in its most impure forms, it may be converted into gas for lighting streets or houses; and it is now highly probable that the introduction of a plan, which threatened to be materially injurious to the interests of the oil-merchant, may prove a means of extending his dealings.

The concluding chapter details the interesting particulars of a hazardous voyage to and from Spitzbergen, in the ship Esk, in 1816; the whole reflecting the highest credit on the author's professional skill, intrepidity, and perseverance. — The Appendix consists of an abstract of the laws at present in force relative to the whale fishery, — Remarks on the most advantageous dimensions of a whale-ship, — Schedule of the principal articles of a fishing apparatus, — Rules for the measurement of a whale-ship, — Manner of mustering the crew, &c. — Account of a trial respecting the right of the ship Experiment to a whale struck by one of the crew of the Neptune, — Explanation of signals used in the whale-fishery, — Account of experiments for determining the relations between weight and measure in certain quantities of whale-oil, — Notices of the whale-fishery in the Southern Seas, — Ob-

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servations on the anomaly in the variation of the magnetic needle, — and explanation of the plates.

We rise from the perusal of the work with the pleasing reflection, that the commander of a Greenland whaler has here displayed much judicious and active observation, combined with no ordinary share of acquired knowlege and scientific attainment, and prompted by an ardent and generous zeal for useful discovery. In consideration of such estimable qualities, we may well pardon in a sailor a certain disregard of refinement of style and accuracy of language.

ART. IV. *Essays, and Sketches of Life and Character.* By a Gentleman who has left his Lodgings. Crown 8vo. pp. 248. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

WE have been pleased with this little volume of Essays, which rumour has assigned to the pen of Lord John Russell, because they manifest no affectation of diction or pretension to originality. It has become fashionable among the essayists and periodical writers of the present day to write in a style of light flippancy and "brief authority," which is extremely displeasing to those who are accustomed to the unassuming graces of our elder authors: sentiments are uttered with an air of dictatorial profoundness, and judgment is pronounced, as if the decision were a law of the Medes and Persians: by making use of short sentences, and clothing an idea with some new and highly wrought figure, an appearance of profundity and terseness is given to thoughts which have long been the common property of all authors; and unfortunately the device has but too frequently succeeded with the public, who have thus mistaken the semblance for the reality of knowlege. The writer of the Essays now before us has not condescended to make use of these adventitious aids, though he has had the ingenuity to invent a title which, we have no doubt, procured for him many readers.

The 'Gentleman who has left his lodgings,' of whom we are favoured with some account in the preface, appears to have possessed considerable acuteness and ability. This brief memoir, which is signed by Mr. Joseph Skillett, is fully equal to any thing contained in the volume itself.

'About a year ago,' says Mr. Skillett, 'a gentleman, without a servant, took an apartment on the first floor of my house. He was, apparently, a young man; but his look was not diffident and unpractised, like that of most young men, but bold and decided, like the countenance of a lieutenant of hussars, who has served a cam-

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campaign or two, and as piercing as that of an Old Bailey lawyer. He wore long black hair over his forehead, and used some words in his language, which I never saw any where but in the Bible and Common Prayer, and which, I suppose, are now out of use. He took two servants, and began to frequent the world. I observed he went to Almack's, and the French play; was admitted into the Travellers' club, wore stays, and used much starch in his neck-cloth. Notwithstanding this, his life was not so regular as that of most young men of fashion. He did not always go out to dinner at a quarter before eight, nor always come home at five in the morning, nor always get up at half-past two in the afternoon. I thought this extraordinary, because I had observed, that those who pretend to any fashion, and claim merit from their want of punctuality, are generally the most exact people possible to be always twenty minutes too late wherever they go. My lodger, on the contrary, very often went out riding upon his return from a ball, and then came and dined by himself, or with my family, at four or five o'clock: nor was he of the usual placid, indifferent humour, that men of the world generally are. Sometimes a darkness would come over his face, and he would sit frowning at the chimney-piece in his own room for a fortnight together. Every now and then, too, he would go away for a few days to Dublin or to Edinburgh, without any apparent reason. But, on the 5th of February last, he set out from my house, about twelve at night, saying, he should return in a few days. Since that time I have heard nothing of him; and being in great want of money to pay my taxes, I went to search, to see if there were any thing I could sell for rent, of which I had not received one farthing. I found a few old clothes, a dozen pair of boots, and a large number of manuscripts: these were written in all kinds of languages, ancient and modern, more than I had ever heard of: some few were in English; and one called, "On the State of the Constitution," in a totally different hand. I suspect it was written by the gentleman, for there was only one, who used sometimes to pay my lodger a visit. With these papers in my hand, I went off directly to Mr. Longman; and he has given me some hopes that I may recover a part of my rent by their means. Who the author may be, I do not pretend to say; or whether the last paper ('the Wandering Jew',) relates at all to himself: I leave that to the courteous reader; and I beg him to recollect that I am not answerable for the opinions of a gentlemen who has left his lodgings.'

In general, these Essays are lively and well written; without, however, exhibiting any extraordinary depth of thought or exertion of intellect. In some of them, the author is inclined to be paradoxical, as we shall shortly proceed to shew. This is the first time, as far as we remember, that we have heard field-sports defended on the plea of humanity: but the present author considers it as a great advantage to the unfortunate tenants of the fields, that they have been 'practised for

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for shooting.' As to the propriety of indulging in such sports, it is a point which we shall not at present discuss: but we must protest against one of the benefits which is here attributed to them, when they are recommended on account of the *manliness* which they bestow.

The essay, however, in which the greatest love of paradox appears, is intitled 'Marriage,' and here the writer seems to us to take a very unfair view of English society. According to him, the antient system of compelling children to marry, agreeably to the will of their parents, has only been exchanged for the more ingenious mode of accomplishing matches by manœuvring and inveiglement; which, in his own words, 'produces in the end deceit amongst girls and suspicion amongst young men;' and in the following passage he contrasts the two systems more strongly:

'What are we to expect, it may be asked, from a system which teaches girls in the bloom of their simplicity, to disguise all their feelings? to conceal the preference they have, and pretend to that which they have not? What can be expected but that having practised deceit before marriage to procure a husband, they should employ it afterwards to conceal a lover? No sooner is a young girl brought into the world, than she is taught dissimulation, avarice, ambition, and dishonest love: her passions are all awakened, and it is no wonder if the husband should become the sufferer. According to the old fashion, a girl went from one duty to another, from obedience in the house of her father, to obedience in the house of her husband. As for love, quite as much as is required for married people naturally follows marriage; as naturally as a vine grows on the elm against which it is planted, does a woman, who is fresh and innocent, love the man to whose person and fortunes she has been united. As for that violent, unjust, irritating, magnifying passion usually called love, which is the foundation of many of our present marriages, it cannot be said to be a good basis for happiness.'

This is not a just delineation of the English female character in general. We cannot allow that it is composed of intrigue and duplicity, though some few examples may perhaps be found equal to Miss Edgeworth's Mrs. Beaumont. Even if we were to grant that deceitfulness and guile are the necessary consequence of the present fashionable system, we still say that

* Soame Jenyns viewed this argument in a different light. — "To add to this," says he, speaking of the inhumanity of sportsmen, "they spare neither labour nor expence to preserve and propagate these innocent animals, for no other end but *to multiply the objects of their persecution.*" (Disquisitions on several Subjects.)

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it is superior to that by which the best and purest feelings of the heart were made the subject of barter, and misery was probably entailed on an innocent being, merely to gratify the avarice or the ambition of those whom nature had made her guardians and protectors, but who thus converted themselves into her tyrants and worst enemies. It is useless for us, however, to occupy our time in refuting arguments which the author himself has successfully opposed: for in what other light can we consider the ensuing sentence? 'A thousand ties of similar friendships, of similar occupations, of similar habits, and even of similar amusements, are necessary to connect the man and woman who are chained to each other for life.' Can we, then, rely on the judgment of others in all these important points; or can the will of parents accomplish this wonderful similarity of disposition?

The essay called 'The Wandering Jew' is not composed in very good taste; and the narrative, which is delivered in the first person, bears the traces of a much younger hand than that of the "fabled Hebrew." Its writer has endeavoured to delineate a character of a man who has tasted all the pleasures and sensualties of the earth, and has found them bitter and worthless, and who places his only enjoyment in contemplating the vice and misery of those who are bound to him by no common bonds of sympathy. The tale is a sort of imitation of St. Leon, but the author does not manifest the powers of Godwin. 'The Wandering Jew' moralizes in a very modern strain; and it is in vain that we find him writing from Rome in the reign of Nero. It is indeed rather curious to observe, in a journal dated at that period, the mention of our countryman Sir Isaac Newton; with whom we were not aware that the Roman literati of that day were acquainted:—nor, indeed, were we until now cognizant of the fact that 'the Wandering Jew,' among his many other qualifications, could boast of the faculty of prescience. In this same journal, we have a very minute account of Roman manners and society in their most degraded state. We may doubt the wisdom of repeatedly dragging these enormities to public view, even to serve as warning examples. Curiosity forms no slight portion of the composition of vice; and we would not uselessly gratify or excite it, by the relation of the unaccountable licentiousness of one of the most depraved periods which has ever disgraced the page of history. What other sentiment can the subsequent passage excite than disgust? The writer is speaking of the Roman ladies.

'They have other vices that are more disgusting, and which, therefore, I delight more in seeing them practise. For example, there

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there is not a noble wife in Rome that goes to dinner till she has taken her wine emetic, and prepared herself an appetite by means that would take it away from the daughter of a ploughman.'

We have remarked another distinguishing feature in these Essays, which is the apparent desire of the writer to compromise all questions of difficulty. Thus, both in religion and politics, the most important and the most difficult of all inquiries, he seems glad to compound with his adversaries. The argument on one of the most abstruse subjects which the human intellect has ever attempted — the prescience of the Deity as connected with free will — is a proof how far this system may be carried.

'For instance, predestination and free will. If a man is predestined to be a villain, and to suffer eternal torments for being so, the Deity cannot be called, towards him at least, a benevolent Being. If, on the other hand, man has entire free will, that is to say, totally independent of motives and circumstances, the Deity can have no prescience. The probability is, then, (and in these things a probability is all we can hope for,) that man is chiefly determined by certain circumstances of birth, country, and education, which do not depend on his own choice; but that there is no single case in which the individual may not, by exerting the powers of his own mind, defeat all those circumstances. The prescience of the Deity still remains; but is general, and not particular. We may suppose God knowing what Alexander or Newton has done, and what mankind will do.'

We shall not make any remarks on such a speculation as this, but proceed to another passage, where the same adherence to the maxim, *in medio tutissimus,* is observable.

'In my opinion, it is not wise to aim at perfection in political reforms. Man was not made for it. But in representation, above all other political questions, perfection is impossible to reach. If, then, we could have a majority of popular representatives in the House of Commons, ought we not to be satisfied? Ought we to chop off Gatton, or Old Sarum, merely because it is an imperfection, and destroys the symmetry of ideal beauty? If we could reduce the decayed boroughs to form only a small portion of the House of Commons, instead of being, as they now are, the chief force of that assembly, should we not have taken a sufficient security for good government? Ought not something to be conceded for the sake of peace, with that large body of men, who are ready to fight to extremity against a theoretical plan of Reform?

'On the other hand, those who are so violently prejudiced against the very name of Reform, should consider how many of the people are ready to serve under that banner; and they should beware how they increase those numbers, by protecting clear and convicted abuses. *Omnia dat qui justa negat.*'

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We conclude our extracts with the remarks on Foreign Travel.

'*Paris*, 1815.

'The English and the French, after an absence of twenty years, have again met in the common intercourse of life, and are exchanging bows, ideas, and sentiments.

'I overheard, one day, a young Englishman entertaining a French lady with profligate principles, and profane jests; although she had often heard morality and religion attacked before, she was so scandalized by the coarseness of his conversation, that she, at last, told him his language might suit the vicious society of London, but was too wicked for Paris: his companion was, at the same time, telling an obscene story to a young lady who fell asleep in the middle of it;—these young men are not improved by travel.

'An English married lady, whom I knew, was remarkable for the plainness of her dress, the modesty of her manners, and the piety of her conduct. She went from Paris this year, with her head made into a stand for flowers, her ears never open but to flattery, and her mouth full of the pretty phrases, "a little flirtation," "innocent behaviour," "harmless dissipation," "stupidity of married women in England," "greater liberality in general society," &c.;—she is not improved by travel.

'I know a sensible English tradesman, who used to shut a Frenchman out of doors; and laughed at every body who did not speak English as correctly, and even as vulgarly as himself; he was so pleased with the kind reception he got in France, and the patient attention with which all his blunders were listened to, that he promises he will go and do likewise;—he is improved by his travels.

'A farmer of good sense, and good heart, travelled through France soon after the peace: he found that the people were neither sulky in their manner, nor full of hatred against the English, nor utterly abandoned to vice and folly, as he had been told; but on the contrary, civil, gay, and ingenuous; nay, he found tolerable farmers, and honest fathers of families: fewer paupers than in England, and much good effected by the Revolution; he imputed the old quarrels of his nation with theirs to the Government, and recommends to the people to give each other the right hand of friendship;—this man is improved, and will improve others.'

On the whole, this little volume, which consists of seventeen essays *, is certainly a proof of the liberal and inquiring spirit of its author, and is the work of a man whose thoughts are not idle.

* The titles are thus given in the table of Contents: 'English and French Pride and Vanity: English and French Taste: Men of Letters: Irresolution: Foreign Travel: Vanity and Love of Fame: The World: National Character: Literary Taste: On Field-sports: An Agreeable Man; Society in London: On Plays: Political Economy: State of the English Constitution: Marriage: Orders of Knighthood: The Wandering Jew.'

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ARTICLES V.—VIII. Messrs. Seybert, Warden, Meliah, and Bristed, *on the United States of America.*

[*Art. concluded from* p. 132.]

HAVING in the former part of this article enlarged on the statistics of the United States, under the heads of climate, population, manners, education, and literature, we are now to enter on a report of the commerce, shipping, manufactures, and finances of this rapidly increasing community; and to sum up the whole with a few observations applicable to the case of those of our countrymen who propose to emigrate across the Atlantic.

Commerce. Exports. — The chief Exports of domestic produce from the United States are

From Massachusets (chiefly from Boston), provisions, beef, pork, pickled fish, lumber, staves, oil, whalebone, and flax-seed.

New York, wheat and other corn, flour, beef, pork, flax-seed, and potash.

Pennsylvania (chiefly from Philadelphia), corn of all kinds, flax-seed, and some manufactures.

Maryland (chiefly from Baltimore), corn of all kinds, flax-seed, and tobacco.

Virginia, tobacco, Indian corn, wheat, and flour.

The Carolinas and Georgia (chiefly from Charleston and Savannah), cotton, rice, tobacco, and Indian corn.

The Western States (by the Mississippi), Indian corn, flour, salted provisions, tobacco, cotton, sugar, and rice.

These exports are almost all the produce of the soil, taking that term in its widest sense as indicative of the produce of mines and forests as well as of agriculture. On the whole, it is computed that one fourth of the produce of the soil in the United States is sent out of the country. The exports of wheat and flour are necessarily very fluctuating, depending both on the harvest in the United States and the harvest in Europe. In 1811, 1812, and 1813, the value of wheat and flour exported averaged nearly 3,000,000l. annually. In 1815 and 1816, years of plenty and low price in England, it did not exceed 1,500,000l. annually, while in the high priced year of 1817 it was more than 4,000,000l. sterling. Of rice, the export is much smaller, but the fluctuations are in like manner considerable. Of cotton, the exports have been progressively increasing, both from the extended culture and the augmented demand. In 1805, 1806, and 1807, they averaged from 2 to 3,000,000l. sterling; but in 1815, 1816, and 1817, they amounted to between 4 and 5,000,000l. annually, of which

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the far greater proportion went to England and Scotland, though the export to France was not inconsiderable. Of tobacco, the average export from the United States is between 60 and 80,000 hhds. (above 2,000,000l. sterling,) which is not so great as in former years: but the proportion of manufactured tobacco is on the increase.

Value of the Exports from the principal States in 1817.

	Home Produce. Value in Dollars.	Foreign Produce re-exported.
Massachusets, -	6,000,000	6,000,000
New York, - -	14,000,000	5,000,000
Pennsylvania, -	6,000,000	3,000,000
Maryland, - -	6,000,000	3,000,000 *
South Carolina, -	10,000,000	
Georgia, - -	9,000,000	
Western States, -	8,000,000	

Direction of the Exports from the United States, for the Year 1817.

To the Baltic and North of	Home Produce.	Foreign Prod.
Europe, - -	3,829,000	2,590,000
Holland and her Colonies,	3,898,000	2,288,000
Great Britain, - -	41,431,000	2,037,000
France, - -	9,717,000	2,717,000
Spain and her Colonies, -	4,530,000	3,894,000
Portugal and her Colonies,	1,501,000	334,000
All other Countries, -	3,907,000	5,198,000
Dollars,	68,313,000	19,358,000

This return is interesting, as it shews the portion of colonial produce still received through the medium of the United States by certain countries of Europe. The case was far otherwise in 1807, when

	Dollars.
Holland and her Colonies received from the United States to the amount of -	17,000,000
Spain and her Colonies, - - -	18,000,000
France and her Colonies, - - -	19,000,000

At that time (1807), the Americans were the general carriers of continental Europe, and their total exports exceeded 100 millions of dollars. At present, they are not above 80 or 90 millions: but the amount of home-produce exported is

* The Southern and Western States have little transit-trade.

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much greater than formerly, the diminution being only in the transit-trade of those powers which, since the peace, have resumed the conveyance of their own goods. This is at once apparent from comparing two years of peace with two years of war.

Years.	Produce of the United States. Dollars.	Colonial and other Produce re-exported. Dollars.	Total. Dollars.
1806.	41,000,000	60,000,000	101,000,000
1807.	49,000,000	59,000,000	108,000,000
1816.	65,000,000	17,000,000	82,000,000
1817.	68,000,000	19,000,000	87,000,000

Imports. — The average value of the annual Imports into the United States is not accurately ascertained, partly on account of a deficiency in the official tables at the custom-house, partly from the extraordinary commercial fluctuations of late years. They may, however, be averaged in the present state of American population at nearly 20,000,000l. sterling, including the foreign produce from Cuba and other parts, which is subsequently re-exported.

The imports for consumption consist of manufactured articles of almost every description from Great Britain: of wine, brandy, and silks, from France: from Spain, Italy, and Portugal, wine, oil, silks, and dried fruit: from Holland and Germany, linen and hardware: from China, tea: from the West Indies, sugar, rum, coffee, cocoa, and molasses.

The most striking feature of American imports is the great proportion of British merchandise; and no part of mercantile history is more demonstrative of the evil effects of government-interference than the connection between the two countries during the last half century. The American States, as long as they continued our colonies, were obliged to ship their produce to England; of the amount thus shipped some diminution was effected by their separation from us, but it was inconsiderable, (between 2 and 300,000l.) and lasted but a few years; while the freedom obtained to their trade at large proved the cause of a great indirect extension of their transactions with us. They shipped produce in quantities to the Continent of Europe, and, taking back only a part of the value in the goods of the country, remitted the proceeds to England, where they were appropriated to the purchase of our manufactures. All that they saved by a direct transmission of their goods to the continent of Europe tended to enlarge the capital, with which they made purchases in England; and the amount increased with great rapidity. In 1805, the apprehension of a rupture with this country induced

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duced the American government to lay before the world a very circumstantial statement of the exports and imports of the Union, with the view of awakening the British public to a sense of the commercial loss attendant on a rupture with their best customers. The substance of these reports is printed both in Dr. Seybert's work and in that of Mr. Warden (vol. iii. p. 292.) it was given also in our report (Appendix to vol. lxxix.) of Beaujour's "View of the United States:" so that we shall at present lay before our readers only a brief sketch, shewing the proportional export and import of the United States with different parts of the world.

Exports to and Imports from different Countries, on an average of Three Years, viz. 1802, 1803, 1804. (Seybert, p. 255.)

	Exports to (Parts in 100.)	Imports from (Parts in 100.)
Great Britain, Ireland, and Brit. Colonies,	35	47½
Spain and Spanish America,	11	8½
France and her Colonies,	18	16½
Holland and her Colonies,	14	8½
Portugal and her Colonies,	3½	1½
Denmark and Sweden with their Colonies,	4	4
Russia,	0	3
Germany,	7	2½
Italy,	3	
All other Parts,	4½	7
	100	100

From this abstract, the inference is that Spain, Holland, Germany, and, in some measure, France, purchased from America a much greater amount of merchandise than they sold to her; leaving in her favour a large balance, which was remitted from the Continent in cash and bills for the purchase of British manufactures. This balance, averaging in the years 1802, 1803, and 1804, about 3,000,000l. sterling, was carried, in the years 1806 and 1807 (Seybert, pp. 137. 155.) to more than 4,000,000l.: but all of it was stopped by our unfortunate Orders in Council, the effect of which, on our manufactures and our paper-currency, but too fully justified the prediction of Mr. Baring. The parliamentary discussions on the Orders in Council in 1812 led to the production of a return of the Exports from Great Britain to the United States, from the Office of the Inspector-General of our Exports and Imports.

1805.	£11,447,000
1806.	12,866,000
1807.	12,098,000

Of

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Of these large sums, scarcely half a million belonged to foreign merchandise; the rest was all British manufacture. Since the peace of 1815, our exports to the United States have exceeded the above-mentioned sums, great as they were; but they have gone to a very different market: the poverty of the Americans in consequence of the war, of their unsuccessful attempts at manufacture, and of the over-issue of bank-paper, having made them far less able than formerly to discharge their debts to this country.

The attention of the mercantile world in the United States, as in England, is fixed on the opening about to be afforded by the emancipation of Spanish America. The advantages of it will, in the opinion of many, and among others of Mr. Bristed, be greater to this country than to the United States; and so ardent is Mr. B. on that point, that he strongly urges (p. 48.) the expediency of our government forming a navigable passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific across the isthmus of Panama, though at an expence of three or four millions sterling!

Shipping. — The direction of national capital to navigation has been proportionally as great in the United States as in England or Holland, and from causes equally apparent; viz. the maritime position of the early settled states; and the uncommon cheapness of ship-timber. So early as 1791, the mercantile shipping of America exceeded 500,000 tons: her seamen, 27,000; and both were soon augmented in a rapid ratio by the war of the French Revolution, at the close of which, in 1801, the mercantile navy of the States exceeded 900,000 tons, and their seamen, 60,000. The war of 1809 was productive of a farther augmentation, and at present, after all the fluctuations of late years, the tonnage of America may be computed at 1,200,000, and her seamen at 70,000; her numbers inferior to those of no country except our own. Ship-building is carried on chiefly at Boston and other ports of New England, and the annual average of it for the whole Union, including boats for the navigation of the rivers, is not short of 100,000 tons; a quantity greater than or fully as great as the average of new shipping in our own country. Of the tonnage of the United States, about two-fifths are employed in the coasting trade, fisheries, and interior navigation; the remainder are in their foreign trade, of which not more than one-fourth is prosecuted in other bottoms, and these chiefly British. Of the vessels employed in the navigation of the Ohio, the most usual are keel-boats, which are constructed with a small keel, so as to draw little water and pass through a narrow channel. The use of steam is necessary

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cessary only in the upward navigation of the rivers; and with its aid a voyage of 1200 miles is easily performed in a fortnight.

The Americans have long since followed our example, in imposing a very heavy duty (9s. per ton) on foreign vessels trading to their ports, while their tax on their own vessels is almost nominal. Since the annoyance experienced from us in the late war, it has become a favourite object with them to augment their navy; and a small but regular addition is made to it annually, at an expence which, including the complete equipment for sea, appears to exceed (Seybert, p. 686.) 1000*l.* per gun, taking the average of several sizes. This charge is greater than the rate of building and equipping in our ports in time of peace; and its magnitude shews that the high price of labour in the United States is no longer balanced by cheapness of timber, the cost of which, by an improvident waste, has become greatly enhanced on many parts of the coast.

The English and the Americans are the two nations which navigate their vessels with the fewest seamen; the average for each appearing to be about one man for every fifteen tons. The stoppage of trade in the late war left many thousands of the sailors unemployed; yet such is the independence of all the lower classes in that country of cheap provision and high labour, that recourse to impressment would (see the letter of the Secretary of the Navy to Congress in 1814) have been unavoidable, had the war continued on an extensive scale.

Manufactures. — The fluctuations in the United States in this branch of productive industry have been still greater than in commerce, and have been produced by the same cause, viz. events arising out of the late war. To withdraw labour and capital from agriculture was quite contrary to the policy of the Americans; and it would not, for ages to come, have entered into their views, if our Orders in Council, and the prohibitory decrees of Bonaparte, had not excluded their produce from the markets of Europe, and obliged them to work it up at home. This took place in 1808; and the zeal then displayed by the Americans, to assert their commercial independence, might fairly be compared to the ardour of the French against the invaders of 1792, or the activity of our countrymen in repelling the threats of Bonaparte in 1803. Communications explanatory of machinery, and of processes for the saving of labour, appeared in all the news-papers; and home-spun cloth was worn by all ranks, in order to discourage the fashion of foreign goods. Aided by this general concurrence, and by the abundance of the raw materials, the manufactures of cotton, wool, flax, iron, leather, and wood,

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increased rapidly; and in 1810 the aggregate of goods manufactured during that year in the United States was computed (Warden, vol. iii. p. 275.) at more than 25,000,000l. sterling. They continued at or near that amount during the years of war, (1812, 1813, and 1814,) but received a great shock by the import of English goods after the peace of 1815. Since that time, they have maintained a doubtful or more than doubtful contest with their English rivals; the high import duty proving an inadequate counterpoise to the cheaper labour, the greater capital, and the superior machinery of the mother-country. The American manufacturers long hoped that their government, acting on the restrictive notions of the last age, would exclude, at whatever sacrifice, the goods of other countries: but their Senate acted a wiser part, and submitted to an immediate loss rather than incur the never-ending injury that would have arisen from giving an unnatural direction to capital. At last the general failure of American manufacturing establishments, followed by an almost equally general failure of their banks, produced the insolvencies of 1819, which spread such general distress throughout the United States, and put an end to manufacturing competition; except in a few articles, for which circumstances are particularly favourable. Several parts of the United States have mines of coal and iron: but there, as in France, they are seldom contiguous, and the great difficulty consists in finding a water-conveyance for these bulky materials. Timber has become scarce and dear in the vicinity of the great cities, and the improvement of American wool is probably destined to be the care of a future generation. Adding to these drawbacks the high price of labour, (double the rate of England, and triple that of France,) there can be no doubt of the propriety of the advice of Mr. Bristed (p. 56.) to continue to look to Europe as the grand arsenal for finished goods, and to be satisfied with the sale of the raw materials. The claims of the manufacturers in America for the exclusion of foreign articles seem now altogether hopeless, and may in fact be termed a demand of the fiftieth part of the population to live by a tax on their countrymen. The business of a carpenter, wheelwright, and even a cabinet-maker is, in general, well understood in the principal towns; for it has been long followed, in consequence both of the cheapness of timber and of the difficulty of getting articles of that description from abroad: but the exports of manufactured goods from the United States (Warden, vol. iii. p. 277.) is very inconsiderable, being confined to a few articles of which the raw materials are unusually abundant; such as

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as soap, candles, wood-work, snuff, gun-powder, spirit of malasses, &c.

Though the Southern States are the seat of the growth of cotton, yet their thin population and the prevalence of negro-slavery render them wholly unfit to become manufacturing countries; and the chief establishments for cotton, as for other fabrics, are (or rather were) in the old settled provinces of Pennsylvania, Massachusets, and New Jersey. The efforts of the Americans to extend their manufactures have been ultimately unsuccessful: but they have called forth a great display of ingenuity and a number of useful discoveries in machinery. No country offers so great a premium on the economy of labour, and in none are the inventive powers less checked by being tied down to particular professions.

Finances.—The national debt of the United States, created by the war of 1774, amounted to about 15,000,000*l.* sterling, including the debt contracted by each individual state, and subsequently assumed by Congress. This sum continued with little diminution until 1805, when the sinking fund began to operate, and had reduced the principal to 9,000,000*l.*: but in 1812 the renewal of war necessitated a rapid augmentation of the debt, carrying the aggregate in 1815 to 25,000,000*l.* sterling. It is now reduced to 20,000,000*l.*, and is in a course of progressive diminution by the sinking fund. By a return made in 1818, it appears that of this debt about 2,100,000*l.* are the property of Dutch stockholders; 2,200,000*l.*, of British; and the rest, with a trifling exception, of Americans.

The interest of this debt forms the chief feature in the American budget: for no country has a less costly administration. During the first 25 years of the federal government (from 1787 to 1812), the army, navy, and civil establishment cost on an average less than 1,000,000*l.* sterling annually at present, after all the additions necessitated by recent events, they do not exceed the following sums:

	Dollars
Civil government, ambassadors, consuls, &c.	2,200,000
Military department,	6,000,000
Navy, including 1,000,000 dollars for its gradual increase,	3,000,000
Public debt, viz. interest and sinking fund,	10,000,000

The history of taxation in the United States is remarkable. The expences of the war of 1774 required the imposition of various taxes, less heavy, but on the whole not unlike those of England: these continued until 1802, when, after a long period

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period of commercial prosperity, the American government found itself enabled to take off most of the internal taxes, and to save their countrymen the unwelcome sight of a tax-gatherer; collecting the revenue from customs on imports, tonnage on foreign vessels, and a few internal taxes. This auspicious era was unfortunately interrupted by the war of 1812, and by the consequent imposition of a number of internal taxes, several extending even to manufactures of the United States. In 1815, most of the internal taxes were repealed; and those that now exist are confined to licences to distillers and retailers of spirits, to duties on carriages, refined sugar, stamped paper and bank-notes, and sales at public auction. A portion of the public revenue (about 700,000l. sterling) is levied by a property-tax, viz. a tax on lands, houses, and slaves; which led in 1815 to a valuation of property throughout the Union, and produced some very interesting statistical documents.

The import-duty on foreign merchandise is, in general, very high; amounting, according to the act of Congress in 1816, to 25 and 30 per cent. on most manufactures. This is a mode of taxation highly convenient for government, as it saves them in a great measure the odium of internal taxation, but it is adverse to those principles which forbid all interference with the course of productive industry. The practical effect of these high customs is to withdraw a portion of American capital from agriculture, and direct it to manufactures sooner than this would otherwise have been the case; lessening in a proportional degree the amount of purchases from Great Britain: — another of the many evils arising from our Orders in Council and the consequent war, previously to which the customs in America were on most of our goods (Seybert, p. 227.) only 12½ or 15 per cent.

Though, however, it enters into the financial policy of the Americans to impose heavy customs on foreign merchandise, and a heavy tonnage-duty on foreign vessels, they disclaim all preference of one country over another, and require extra duties only in the few cases in which similar duties have previously been imposed on them. Thus an injudicious addition in France to the tonnage-duty on American vessels, in the present year, called forth an immediate retaliation on the other side of the Atlantic. With England, the commercial treaties at present in existence stipulate that the "duties in America on our shipping, or merchandise, shall be on the same scale as on the shipping and merchandise of other nations;" and, in return, Americans are admitted to our East-India possessions on the same footing as other foreigners, and are intitled to go from one port in India to another. Our West-India

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India colonies are, however, closed to American merchandise, except through the medium of Bermuda; an exclusion which called forth in 1817 an act of Congress, forming a counterpart to our navigation-acts, and implying that "British ships should import into the United States only the produce or manufactures of their own country." Nothing is more desirable than an abrogation on both sides of these antiquated and pernicious restrictions.

National Capital. — Mr. Bristed draws the following parallel between the resources of the United States and those of the two principal powers of Europe, calculating the whole in dollars:

	United States.	Gr. Britain and Ireland.	France.
Capital in land, houses, and money, - -	7,200,000,000	18,000,000,000	12,000,000,000
National revenue, - -	360,000,000	900,000,000	600,000,000
National debt, - -	100,000,000	3,600,000,000	180,000,000
Government Revenue, viz. The Union, - 25,000,000 The States separately, - - 20,000,000	45,000,000	230,000,000	140,000,000

The national capital of the United States is thus computed:

Lands cultivated at an average of 10 dollars an acre, - - -	3,000,000,000
Lands uncultivated at 2 dollars the acre, - -	1,000,000,000
Houses of all kinds, - - -	1,000,000,000
Property in the public funds, - -	100,000,000
Property in banking stock, - - -	100,000,000
In slaves 1,500,000, at 150 dollars each, -	225,000,000
Shipping of all kinds, - - -	225,000,000
Money, farming stock and utensils, manufactures, furniture, carriages, and other personal property, - - -	1,550,000,000
Total -	7,200,000,000

This estimate, if somewhat beyond the mark for the present condition of the United States, is likely ere long to be realized in a country in which capital and population so rapidly increase.

To what Classes of our Countrymen is Emigration eligible? — The first and most numerous class of our countrymen, likely to be benefited by crossing the Atlantic, are the extremely poor, or common labourers generally; and next to them mechanics at low wages, who have or anticipate a family. Of the advantage of the change to both these descriptions of men, there can be no doubt: but the difficulty lies in conveying across the Atlantic persons whose circumstances do not

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not enable them to transport themselves; and here it may be asked, is emigration a politic expedient, or has it not been shewn by respectable writers, Mr. S. Gray and Dr. Purves, (see our Numbers for February, 1817, and July, 1819,) to operate as a diminution of our productive means? Whatever may be the weight of these arguments under ordinary circumstances, it will hardly be questioned that emigration is advisable in the state into which Europe, and particularly our own country, has been thrown by a great and sudden transition from war to peace. Another question of equal importance will, we trust, be conceded; viz. that it is as beneficial to us to send an emigrant to the United States as to one of our own colonies; since, in both the one and the other, most of the articles for his consumption are derived from this country, and afford employment, in the preparation, to British labour and capital. Next as to the funds for his conveyance;—the laws of political economy forbid government to make any considerable payment on this account out of the public money: but are not our parishes justified in advancing in this manner the sums which they would otherwise have to expend on the poor-rate? The most proper and equitable mode would be to make the charge of transport devolve on the country that acquires the new settlers; and for the latter to pledge their labour during one, two, or three years, in return for the improvement of situation which is afforded to them by the change. This practice has long existed in the removal of the poor Germans and Irish; and it remains to be seen whether, amid all the changes of this eventful age, it is not likely to be adopted on a more extensive scale, to be managed by men of reputation as well as capital, and on a plan conducive equally to the relief of the humble individual and the benefit of the community. No charge would then be incurred by the mother-country; and the chief object of solicitude, the health of the emigrants on the passage and after their arrival, seems in a manner guaranteed by the interest of the directing parties.

Comparing the condition of mechanics in England with those of the United States, the result is greatly in favour of the latter; wages being higher (5s. or 6s. a day), while provisions are in most parts lower. The great cause of dearness in America, the attendance of servants, is of course out of the question with this class; and they are not often at a loss for work: though, when such unluckily happens to be the case in winter, the expence of fuel proves very heavy in the towns on the coast. Emigrants from Europe generally reach the United States in the summer; which, though better in some

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respects, puts the constitution to a severe test; the thermometer in the middle of the day being frequently from 84° to 90°. Directions for preserving the health of new comers have been published by the Humane Society of New York, and to an observance of them the European labourer should add abstemiousness as to liquor and animal food in summer; with the farther precaution of wearing when at work a loose flannel shirt next to the skin: a simple but effectual preservative against the evils of obstructed perspiration. In the Western States, wages are equal, provisions somewhat cheaper, and the summer-heat less oppressive.

Another class of persons, to whom emigration is advisable, is that of farmers of small capital; men who, when they have paid the expence of the passage and of the journey to the interior, will have from 100l. to 200l. clear. This sum will suffice to make the purchase of an uncleared property; and the calculation of eventual advantage proceeds less on the assumption of profit from farming capital, than on the liberal reward of personal exertion: it being taken for granted that an individual of such moderate means will not scruple to bear an active part in the labours of the field.

These are, perhaps, the only classes to whom emigration is eligible. A merchant with capital will do best to remain at home; of clerks there is and has long been a superabundance; manufacturers are wholly out of the question; and there does not appear to be any eligible opening for professional men, such as lawyers, physicians, or clergymen: the population being in most parts too thinly scattered to admit of the exercise of such professions. Besides, the characteristic advantages of the United States are confined to two main points, the command of new land, and the high price of labour. They offer no extra premium for the application of capital to trade; since, though the rate of interest, and consequently of mercantile profit, is higher than in long-settled countries, this advantage is merely ostensible, being balanced (perhaps more than balanced) by the necessity of long credit, and the surprizing number of insolvencies. Nor is America, like France, the country for an annuitant: — to the upper or middling ranks of society, housekeeping is dearer than in England, since, though mere provisions are cheaper, clothes, hardware, and domestic utensils are dearer; also house-rents; and, in particular, the wages of servants.

What Parts of the United States are most suitable to Emigrants? — The southern states are wholly ineligible to emigrants from the north of Europe; the summer-heats being excessive, bodily labour attended with danger, and the objects

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of culture very different from those to which our countrymen have been accustomed at home: provisions, also, are twice their price in England, and inferior in quality: to all which is to be added the lamentable prevalence of negro slavery. Excluding, therefore, the southern half of Virginia, and the whole of the Carolinas, Georgia, and the newly acquired territory towards the lower part of the Mississippi, the choice of emigrants may be pointed to one of three quarters: — the states, particularly Pennsylvania, to the east of the Allegany-mountains; the Ohio, and other newly settled provinces to the west; and, finally, the country to the north, partly British, partly American, adjoining the Lakes of Canada.

Hitherto, the road most frequented by settlers repairing to the westward has been that which passes from Philadelphia to Pittsburgh, a distance of three hundred miles: but the route from Baltimore is shorter, and will ere long have the benefit of a turnpike direction across the mountains. In the mountain-districts, the country is romantic, and generally fertile; and the chief objection to a settler consists in the cold of winter. On reaching Pittsburgh, the emigrant finds himself at a central spot, and may proceed either to the northward or the westward; the former leading him in the direction of the Lakes of the St. Lawrence, and the latter along the banks of the Ohio: the whole a trackless forest till within the last half century. The course of the Ohio is very long, yet its banks are in general cleared and cultivated as far almost as its junction with the Mississippi: the soil is, for the most part, good; and the cleared land is to be purchased for twenty, thirty, or forty dollars per acre, according to soil and situation. The abundance of lime and coal, and the facility of transport by water, are great advantages in this quarter, while British manufactures are not much dearer than in the maritime states. Still it is only a strip or border of country that is cultivated: at a distance from the river, all is uncleared, except on particular spots; and the state of Ohio, though larger than all Ireland, does not contain a population equal to that of a single Irish county. Hence an almost boundless field is open to the ambition of new settlers: hither, accordingly, tends the great swarm of American wanderers; and hither did Mr. Birkbeck direct his steps, and, ambitious of a large domain, proceed (see our Number for February, 1818) to the farthest verge of the line of cultivation, pitching his tent on the banks of the Wabash, at no great distance from the influx of the Ohio into the Mississippi. In our opinion, he would have acted more wisely in fixing himself and his English companions within reach of the comforts of an already

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settled territory; leaving the contest with noxious vapours, and the labour of clearing forests, to the enterprize of American settlers who were accustomed to the climate. Mr. Birkbeck admits that the wood-lands around him, and in the Western States, generally are by no means clear of poisonous reptiles, wolves, or bears, and are infested in summer with swarms of mosquitoes; to all which he might have added the unwholesome exhalations arising, during several years, out of land that has been brought into culture from a state of nature.

Let us compare this place of settlement with those that are less remote, as in the east of Pennsylvania; taking for example Montrose, a village built entirely since 1800, and situated within two days' journey of the Hudson's river, and three days of Philadelphia. The site of this place is sufficiently elevated for health, and for a partial diminution at least of those summer and autumn heats which are the great bane of new-comers. Lands near the village cost from five to seven dollars per acre, but those at a distance cost less: a price somewhat higher than would be required to the westward: but, in return, the settler has the advantages of roads for the arrival of supplies and the transport of his produce, of schools for his children, and society for himself. His little capital also is comparatively unimpaired by the expence of travelling, or the carriage of tools, clothes, and furniture; the transport of which across the Allegany mountains, in the case of a family of six or eight persons, costs as much as the purchase of 60 or 80 acres of land. Proceeding westward from Montrose, the traveller reaches a more elevated soil, and finds various spots, such as Union in Fayette county, (a day's journey to the east of Pittsburgh,) which are healthy and flourishing. Throughout the whole of Pennsylvania, negro-slavery is prohibited, and uncleared land may frequently be had merely on condition of settling and remaining on it during five years. Generally speaking, the eastern country, whether in Pennsylvania or New York, is inferior in soil and climate (see Melish, p. 548.) to the Western States: but, in situations in which these drawbacks do not exist, the settler, finding the same advantage with respect to prices as on the other side of the mountains, will have reason to congratulate himself on avoiding the journey, particularly if his pecuniary means are small. In the case of a farmer, wherever he may settle, let it be kept in mind that the cheapness of purchase, though a prominent is far from a conclusive advantage, since the great expence consists in clearing and improving; and to bring a property of 700 or 800 acres into a productive

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state requires, according to Mr. Birkbeck, not less than 300*l.*

A third plan, quite distinct from the former, is that of taking a long settled farm, with dwelling-house and offices, in a well-inhabited part of the country. The rent in such cases is nearly as high as in England; and, though the crop be luxuriant, and free from the charge of tithe, the speculation often proves unprofitable, so much are prices kept down in America by the quantity of produce thrown into the market by the cultivators of new land.

The Vicinity of the Lakes. — The falls of Niagara are an object of great interest to the traveller, and are situated in a country of which the climate appears to be less unsuitable to European constitutions than either the Eastern or the Western States: the summer-heats being less oppressive, and the cold of winter, though long and severe, not being insalubrious. No part of the journal of Mr. Melish will be read with greater interest than that which relates to this district; particularly as his praise of it was given after a very extensive survey of the United States. In no quarter does the condition of the settler appear more comfortable; provisions are sound in quality, and reasonable in price, flour costing about 1*l.* per barrel; beef from 2*d.* to 3*d.* the pound; a fowl from 6*d.* to 8*d.*, and fish being plentiful and cheap. At these prices, a mechanic has no difficulty in rearing a family on wages of 5*s.* per day. The settlers come in general from the New England States, but in part also from Great Britain and Ireland: the houses are built of wood, and, being painted white, have a cheerful and at times an elegant appearance. New lands are sold on terms almost as reasonable as in the remote western provinces. These favourable characteristics are possessed by the country on both sides of the St. Lawrence, as well British as American: the former in a part of Upper Canada; the latter, of the province of New York; and both are frequented by American settlers from the eastward. Mr. Melish was struck with the rapid extension of cultivation in the preceding twenty years; and he dwells on a small town called Canandaigua, with yet only one thousand inhabitants, as affording, like a number of other inland-towns in the United States, a proof that the main consideration in a new settlement is not the command of navigation but salubrity of climate.

We hope that these comprehensive details, and perspicuous summaries, will prove interesting to most readers; and useful to those who have, or propose to have, any connection with the New World.

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ART. XI. *Sketch of a Tour in the Highlands of Scotland, through Perthshire, Argyleshire, and Inverness-shire, in September and October, 1818; with some Account of the Caledonian Canal.* 8vo. pp. 352. 9s. 6d. Baldwin and Co.

Tours into Scotland have been so repeatedly written and printed, that a new contribution of the kind ought not to be offered to the public without possessing some specific claim to its favour either from novelty in the route or originality in the observations. Of such merit we are happy to say that the writer of this modest sketch is by no means devoid; his track having lain along a rarely visited part of country, and his remarks being, in general, directed to topics of utility and interest. His travels extended through the central Highlands of Scotland; beginning from the banks of the Tay in the part where that river, the largest body of fresh water in our island, assumes the appearance of an estuary. Hence he proceeded across the middle of Scotland, until he approached the Western Ocean and the region in which the hills of Morven and the stream of Coan recall names consecrated by the poetry of Ossian. From these most wild and sequestered parts of the Highlands, he directed his steps along that succession of lakes which extends in a north-east direction, and forms the chief part of the Caledonian Canal. A continuance in this course would have brought him to a well cultivated tract, for the east coast of Scotland is open and fertile even in the north: but, as it formed no part of his object to visit scenes or to enter on a society similar to those of the cultivated districts of the kingdom, he pursued his homeward course by the inland road through the mountains; visiting in his progress southward Athol and Dunkeld, with the beauties of which the readers of travels have been long since familiarized by the descriptions of Gilpin and Gray. The whole line of road traversed by the author may be compared to a triangular figure, of which each side occupies about one hundred miles.

The chief part of the book is appropriated to local descriptions; viz. to accounts of particular rivers, mountains, or valleys, of which the names are known to a very limited portion of the public; in consequence, however careful may be the composition or accurate the information, our notice of its contents must be confined to a few topics of general interest. Among these may be reckoned the remarkable fact that the rivers, flowing to the east coast of Scotland, frequently have their rise at only forty or fifty miles' distance from the western shore; so much greater is the elevation of the

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the land in the country bordering on the Atlantic. Thus the Tay has its source as near to the Western Ocean as the Severn to the Irish Channel; its course being to the east and southward, and in all about one hundred and forty miles; and the Spey, the Forth, the Tweed, in short, every great river except the Clyde, flow in like manner from west to east.

Another question of public interest regards the merits of the Caledonian Canal, as a medium of inland-navigation calculated to save the hazardous circuit of the north of Scotland to the shipping proceeding from Liverpool, Glasgow, and other ports to the Baltic. This inquiry, long involved in doubt, and made the subject of keen discussion among the navigators and civil engineers, is, we believe, now set at rest by the practicability of applying steam to the purposes of navigation, and of quickening the progress of the largest vessels through the lakes by means of steam-draggers.

A third topic discussed by the author of this tour, (p. 163.) and at a length to which we are not inclined to follow him, is the unfortunate massacre of Glenco in the reign of King William (in 1692); when the orders sent from London to extirpate a refractory tribe of Highlanders were but too literally executed.

In various passages of this work, (pp. 235. 297, &c.) we find remarks of importance to those who are interested in contemplating society in the singular aspect which it so long held, and still in a great degree holds, in the remote mountains of Scotland. Poor as is the condition of our fellow-subjects in these parts, they are in general exempt from suffering with regard to the main article of food; their coast affording herrings in abundance, and their miserable soil being adapted to potatoes, which are cultivated with success in patches amid bleak mountains, where no sign of vegetation is perceptible, except heath and moss. As to the surface of the country, it can scarcely be doubted that in Scotland, as in Norway and in the uncleared part of North America, both mountains and vallies were, in a remote age, covered with wood: there are in fact on record documents of various dates, enjoining on military officers stationed in remote districts the destruction of a number of forests, which afforded shelter to banditti. We quote the following, issued by General Monk, when left in Scotland by Cromwell to crush any attempt that might be made to restore the royal influence:

"Whereas the woods of Miltern and Glensliart, in Aberfoyle parish, are great shelters to the rebels and mossers, and do thereby bring many inconveniences to the country thereabouts: — these are to desire you, on sight hereof, to give order for the cutting

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down of the woods with all possible expedition, that so they may not any longer be a harbour or shelter for loose, idle, and desperate persons; and thereof you are not to fayle. Given under my hand and seale, at Cardrosse, the 17th of May, 1654.

"GEORGE MONK.

"*To the Right Honourable the Earl of Airth.*"

One of the most interesting passages relative to the Highlands is that in which (pp. 118, 119.) the author gives an account of the illicit distilling carried on amid the mountains; which affords not only a stock for consumption on the spot, but a large supply for a clandestine import into the low country. The regular distillers, who are obliged to pay the full duty, having complained loudly of this practice, an act was passed about the year 1816, modifying (p. 121.) the existing law in Scotland in a manner which, if carried into effect, would entirely remove the cause of complaint. As yet, difficulties have occurred in the adoption of the new plan: but if, as the writer supposes, they have been owing to the nature of the seasons and other temporary causes, its eventual adoption may still be considered as probable.

The author has not judged it proper to prefix his name to his book, or to afford any clue to its discovery: but, whatever may have been the motive of his *reticence*, the publication is highly creditable to him; the style being plain and unaffected, while the reflections are judicious, and not unfrequently important. For a specimen of his composition, we may refer to a description (p. 12.) of a town, and (p. 114.) of the course of a great river; passages apparently of secondary interest, but which manifest a discrimination by no means usual among tourists, in selecting leading features, and conveying an idea of the whole, without dwelling on unconnected or unimportant particulars.

ART. X. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1820. Part I. 4to. Sewell. Nicol and Son.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, &c.

THE *Croonian Lecture. A farther Investigation of the component Parts of the Blood.* By Sir Everard Home, Bart. V. P. R. S. — The author commences this paper by boldly asserting that he has been able to *prove* that the blood, in coagulation, evolves aëriform matter, so as to pervade the coagulum in every direction; and that currents of such matter,

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matter, passing through the serum, form permanent tubes, which are immediately afterward filled with red blood, when the circumstances in which the coagulum is placed admit of it. The experiments here related were made with blood in aneurysmal tumours, in a coagulated state, instead of the coagula of extravasated blood, as reported in a former communication. In the aneurysmal pouch, the succession of layers of coagula affords an opportunity of observing the changes which coagulated blood undergoes in such circumstances, at different periods of time. The layer in contact with the blood in circulation contained globules of different sizes, some smaller than Sir Everard had ever seen before, according to the microscopic observations conducted by Mr. Bauer; and he also perceived a small quantity of transparent elastic mucus. In the other layers, in proportion to the time of formation, the supposed newly discovered small globules increased in the ratio of four to one; and the proportion of transparent elastic mucus advanced in like manner. These new small globules were found in the serum, and in coagulable lymph taken from the vagina of an ass and from the internal surface of an inflamed vein. Mr. Bauer observed the buff of highly inflamed blood to consist almost wholly of the new small globules: but the globules were much larger in the lower portions of the buffy coat. A tumour in the prostate gland was perceived to be made up 'of red globules free from colour,' with a small proportion of globules of lymph, and some of the *transparent elastic jelly* above called *elastic mucus*. These and other tumours, consisting of layers of coagula, never become vascular, we are told, because 'the aëriform matter, evolved at the time that the blood coagulates, readily escapes into the circulating blood with which it is in contact.'—'To ascertain whether the proportion of aëriform matter in the blood is liable to vary, as well as to determine its nature, a very buffy coagulum was placed in the receiver of an air-pump, with a syphon passing from the vessel containing it into a bottle filled with barytes water. The pump was worked, and the gas only came over in single bubbles, which occasioned a precipitation of carbonate of barytes. From a less buffy coagulum, the gas came over in several bubbles at a time. When there was no buff, the gas was abundant, and the precipitation copious.' The coagulum of six ounces of blood, taken one hour after a meal, being treated as just stated in the air-pump, the carbonic gas passed through the syphon in a torrent.

Carbonic acid commonly occurs in the urine, but in greater proportion after a full meal. Mr. Bauer finds lymph globules and

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and red globules in the glary mucus of the pyloric region of the stomach, in the earliest stages of digestion. The milk-white fluid of the mesenteric glands exhibits in the microscope an infinite number of white globules, swimming in a perfectly clear and colourless fluid, as the red globules do in the serum.

Although the ingenious lecturer confidently speaks of having *proved* his assertions, we are unable to perceive the demonstration. Indeed, we see little else but hypotheses; and, with regard to the facts, we know that Leuenhoeck and his pupils, many years ago, testified the universality of the globularity in all the fluids and solid parts of animals. We must demur to assent to the formation of tubular or vascular structure by the introduction of gas into blood, until farther evidences and other proofs are produced; and accordingly we protest *in toto* against the concluding paragraph; viz. 'as the exposure of the blood to the air, in its passage through the lungs, restores the brilliancy of colour that is lost in the circulation through the body, we can have no doubt that it is in the vessels of the lungs the blood receives its original hue.'

The Bakerian Lecture. On the Composition and Analysis of the inflammable gaseous Compounds resulting from the destructive Distillation of Coal and Oil, with some Remarks on their relative heating and illuminating Powers. By William Thomas Brande, Esq. Sec. R. S. Prof. Chem. R. I. — In the course of some experimental inquiries made by Professor Brande, various new views relative to the constitution of these gaseous compounds suggested themselves; and some properties of terrestrial radiant matter became apparent, which are detailed in this lecture. The coal used at the gas-company's works, and common whale-oil, furnished the gases submitted to analysis. It is taken for an admitted fact, that there are two definite compounds of carbon and hydrogen; one termed *olefiant gas*, consisting of one proportion of hydrogen and one of carbon; and the other called *light hydrocarburet*, consisting of one proportion of carbon and two of hydrogen. Assuming hydrogen as 1, then the specific gravity of olefiant gas is 13,4. Light *hydrocarburet* has been computed to have the specific gravity of 7,7 compared with hydrogen. The ingenious lecturer infers that no definite compound of carbon and hydrogen exists, except that which is usually called *olefiant gas*; 'that the various inflammable compounds employed for the purposes of illumination, and produced by the destructive distillation of coals, oil, &c. consist essentially of a mixture of olefiant gas and hydrogen; that

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that the gas procured from acetate of potash and from moist charcoal contains the same elements, with carbonic oxide, and carbonic acid; and that no other definite compound of carbon and hydrogen can be recognized in them, except olefiant gas.'

In the second section, Mr. B. details comparative experiments on the illuminating and heating powers of olefiant, coal, and oil gases, and on some general properties of radiant matter. It is concluded, from various data, 'that to produce the light of ten wax candles for one hour, there will be required

2600 cubical inches of olefiant gas,
4875 - - - - - - oil gas,
13120 - - - - - - coal gas;

and that the quantity of oxygen consumed

by the olefiant gas will = 7800 cubical inches.
by the oil gas, - - - =11578
by the coal gas, - - =21516'

Olefiant gas, the author remarks, 'cannot be employed for any economical purposes, and is only here adverted to for the sake of comparison. A gasometer, containing 1000 cubical feet of oil gas, is adequate to furnish the same quantity of light as one of 3000 cubical feet of coal gas, provided due attention be paid to the construction of the burners, and to the distribution of the lights.'

For ordinary purposes of illumination by oil gas, Mr. B. considers ten-hole Argand burners, each consuming about a cubical foot and a half per hour, and giving the light of seven wax candles, or nearly two oil Argands, as the most economical and generally useful. Single jet burners, or those in which the flames do not coalesce, have been shewn to consume a very much larger quantity of gas for the production of an equal quantity of light; and Argand burners, in which the flames do not coalesce, consume more gas for an equal production of light than those in which the apertures are more numerous, but sufficiently near each other to allow of the union of the separate flames.

The relative heating powers of the flames of olefiant, oil, and coal gases, were obtained by experiments; which shewed that to raise a quart of water from 50° to 212°, at thirty inches of barometrical pressure, requires

870 cubical inches of olefiant gas,
1300 - - - - - - oil gas,
2190 - - - - - - coal gas.

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Our boundaries do not suffer us to relate more particularly the experiments in this lecture: but we must notice, in conclusion, the following. Chlorine and hydrogen gases, in equal volumes, exposed in a tube with a large thin bulb, and inverted over water exposed to the brilliant focus produced by a large olefiant gas flame, caused no change; nor, if kept in common day-light but out of the sun-shine, is the chemical agency immediate in forming muriatic acid. The same chemical effect was obtained by the intense light of charcoal with the voltaic battery: but no other terrestrial light could be made to produce it. Hence Mr. B. infers that some peculiarity exists in voltaic light, and solar light, which is not yet understood.

Instead of the photometer of Leslie, the author invented a new instrument, like a differential thermometer. The bulb contained, instead of air, the vapour of æther, and the stem was filled by a column of that liquid. Thus a very delicate differential thermometer was formed. To convert it into a photometer, the upper ball is covered with a thin coating of Indian ink, and the lower with silver or gold leaf. The whole instrument is then placed in a pellucid glass tube; and, when taken out of its case, the operation of light is perceived at the instant of exposure, by the falling of the liquid from the blackened to the metallic side. It is powerfully influenced by the flame of a candle at the distance of one foot, and proportionally by other luminous bodies.

On the Elasticity of the Lungs. By James Carson, M.D. — The author of this paper conceives that a cause essential to respiration, viz. the elasticity or resilience of the lungs, has not hitherto been investigated by physiologists, although this property of the resilience is admitted and shewn in every lecture-room. The extent of this power has not been calculated on the lungs, heart, diaphragm, &c.: but its influence is as important as that of the piston in the steam-engine by the expansive powers of steam. To determine the degree of elasticity, an apparatus was employed, consisting of an oblong glass globe, containing two quarts, with a tubular opening at each end; a glass tube nearly three feet in length, and bent at one end, was joined to one opening; and a shorter tube was affixed in a similar manner to the other opening. To the smaller tube a piece of the dried gut of some animal was bound, of a few inches long; and the other end of the gut was fixed to a cylindrical tube of bone, metal, or wood, also a few inches long, and of a diameter corresponding to the diameter of the windpipe of the animal subjected to the experiment. Water was poured in so as to stand to certain heights in the

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upright tube connected with the oblong globular large vessel; and the short tube at the other end being introduced into the larynx or trachea of animals, apertures were made through the diaphragm to let in air, or through the sides of the thorax. The result was, 'that the spring of air, compressed by a column of water of a foot and a half high, is not equal to the resilience of the lungs of an ox, at the usual stage of their dilatation.'

In the case of a dog killed on the day preceding the experiment, the water stood six inches in the upright tube above the level of the water in the globe. On admitting air through apertures into the chest, the water rose an inch in the tube, and the lungs receded a little from the openings. Water was then poured into the upright tube, till it stood at ten inches above the level of water in the globe; and it remained steadily in that station, the lungs filling apparently the boundaries of the chest.

It has been said that the elastic substance of the lungs, being stretched, generated a power of quickening the circulation of the blood, and of promoting respiration. This power was inferred from the elastic property of the lungs; from the space which they must occupy in the chest; from the phænomena exhibited on opening the chest and admitting external air; and from the ebullition of water when the windpipe is inserted in it, and the lungs are allowed freely to collapse. Dr. C. remarks that, although this power was allowed to be his discovery, it was supposed to be unimportant; whereas he now proves it to be most material.

The explanation of the conical form of the diaphragm during life, and after death, till an aperture is made into the chest, will serve also to manifest the important uses of the elasticity of the lungs. The external walls of the chest resist effectually the atmospheric pressure: but the base, the diaphragm, being pliant, muscular, and having a more extensive area than the transverse section of the chest, in consequence of the greater weight which it necessarily has to sustain on its outer surface, is pressed or sucked upwards into the form of a cone. Two powers vary the form and dimensions of the diaphragm; viz. the elasticity of the lungs, and the contractile power of the diaphragm: the former being permanent and equable, while the latter is occasional and variable. The contractile power of the diaphragm, when fully exerted, is much greater than the power of elasticity of the lungs: but the latter, not being subject to exhaustion, takes advantage of the necessary relaxation of its antagonist; and 'rebounding, like the stone of Sisyphus, recovers its lost ground,

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ground, and renews the toil of its more powerful opponent. Breathing is in a great measure the effect of this interminable contest between the elasticity of the lungs and the irritability of the diaphragm.' Independently of the volition, the diaphragm's contractions take place according to the rationale that a permanent and invariable load is sustained by the lower surface of this organ; and by this load the relaxed muscular fibres become stretched to a degree which grows painful and stimulating. To remove the burden, the diaphragm is forced to contraction: but this contractile power, agreeably to the laws of muscularity, is soon exhausted, and, falling into a quiescent state, allows the painful and stimulating distention of the relaxed fibres of the diaphragm to be again renewed. From this irksome state it relieves itself by a fresh contraction; and thus, by the alternate superiority of two powers, on the balancing of which life depends, the chest is successively enlarged and diminished, and air is alternately expelled and inhaled. In a similar and equally effective manner, the author concludes, the elasticity of the lungs will be found to influence the movements of the heart and the motion of the blood.

In our estimation, Dr. Carson has done more than sufficient to excite farther investigation respecting the effects of the agency of the elasticity of the lungs, and to be entitled to the honour of being instrumental to future discovery, although not enough to produce conviction and satisfy the mind with regard to his theories.

A Case of the Human Fœtus found in the Ovarium, of the Size it usually acquires at the End of the Fourth Month. By A. B. Granville, M.D. F.R.S. — This communication is intended to illustrate Sir Everard Home's explanation in his paper on the *corpora lutea*, respecting the mode in which the ovum is sometimes retained, and the embryo formed, within the cavity of the *corpus luteum*. Drawings of the parts, by Mr. Bauer, are given; and the dissection is minutely and ably described. The fact of the extra uterine conception, or of a perfect ovario-gestation, was distinctly established.

On some Combinations of Platinum. By Edmund Davy, Esq. Professor of Chemistry, and Secretary to the Cork Institution. — This paper contains the results of Professor Davy's farther labours on the combinations of platinum, since his former communication to the Royal Society in 1817. The subject of the experiments was a peculiar compound of platinum, obtained from sulphate of platinum by the agency of alcohol. Unlike other sulphates, this is dissoluble in æther and in alcohol; and, by boiling for a few minutes, a black

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black substance is precipitated, of a composition and with properties not hitherto known. A minute account is given of this new substance, which cannot be usefully abridged. It may be advantageous to state, however, that the precipitate under examination appears to consist almost solely of platinum, with a little oxygen, and the elements of the nitrous acid. We must also mention the curious experiment in which the powder is brought in contact with the vapour of alcohol at the common temperature of the air, when there is an immediate chemical action. The heat generated is sufficient to reduce and ignite the metal, and to continue it in a state of ignition till all the alcohol is consumed. In this case, the acid first noticed by Sir H. Davy (in his beautiful experiment of the ignited platinum wire) is produced. Hence the use of this powder for producing light and heat. By merely sprinkling the powder on any porous substance, as a sponge, cork, sand, &c. moistened with alcohol, it immediately becomes red hot, and so remains till all the spirit is consumed. Hence, also, the obvious use of this new substance as a sort of tinder-box.

We must likewise take notice of the use of sulphate of platinum as a test of gelatine, since it seems preferable to other re-agents, especially to the most delicate that is in use, tannin: for it appears that quantities of gelatine too small to be detected by tannin were rendered evident by sulphate of platinum; and that, farther, a quantity too minute to be denoted by this sulphate in the cold became visible on boiling. The author details a number of properties of a grey oxide of platinum, and of its composition: but for these we must refer to the memoir itself, which is worthy of the family of *the Davys*.

Philosophical Papers, &c.

On the Action of crystallized Bodies on homogeneous Light, and on the Causes of the Deviation from Newton's Scale in the Tints which many of them develope on Exposure to a polarised Ray. By J. F. W. Herschel, Esq. — The brilliant discovery made by M. Malus, of the polarization of light by reflection, opened a new field to the cultivation of philosophers; and uncommon talents and perseverance have been almost ever since employed, in the investigation of the general laws which regulate the action of crystallized bodies on light. In the pursuit of these investigations, philosophers have frequently discovered particular anomalies, which, in the first instance, seemed to render doubtful the theory that they had employed: but a more minute examination of them has, in most cases,

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led to an explanation of the causes by which they were produced; and frequently these very anomalies have served to render more secure the theory which they at first appeared to contradict.

Such is in some measure the case in the present instance. Mr. Herschel, in the course of his experimental inquiries on the polarization of light, was struck by the very considerable deviation from the succession of colours in their lastina, as observed by Newton, which many crystals exhibit when cut into plates perpendicular to one of their axes. He was at first induced to attribute this effect to a want of perfect regularity in their structure, or to inequalities in their thicknesses arising from his own inexpertness in grinding and polishing their surfaces; and it was not till habit had rendered him familiar with all the causes of deception, that, finding the same phenomena uniformly repeated, in different and perfect specimens, his curiosity became excited to inquire into the cause which produced them: particularly as they now began to assume the form of a radical and unanswerable objection to the theory of M. Biot, which affords so perfect an explanation of the tints in crystals with one axis. In the mean time, Dr. Brewster had observed the same phænomena, and had slightly alluded to the subject in his paper read before the Royal Society in 1818: but he had not attempted an explanation.

It is impossible for us to follow Mr. Herschel through his various experiments and investigations, especially as he is obliged to have recourse to figures and diagrams: but the method which he has pursued in this inquiry may, perhaps, be sufficiently understood from the following illustration of it, in the author's own words:

'The course I propose to pursue is, first, to describe the phenomena themselves. I shall then show how these phenomena, complicated as they are in appearance, are all reducible to one very simple and general fact; viz. that the axes of double refraction differ in their position in the same crystal for the differently coloured rays of the spectrum, being dispersed in one plane over an angle more or less considerable, according to the nature of the substance. In many bodies, the magnitude of this dispersion of the axes is comparatively trifling, while in some, not otherwise remarkable for a high ordinary or extraordinary dispersive power, it is enormous, and must render all computation of the rays in which it is not taken into consideration completely erroneous; and indeed obliterating almost every trace of the Newtonian scale of colour. We have here, then, a new element, which for the future must enter into all formulæ of double refraction pretending to rigour, and at the same time are presented with another very striking

striking instance of the inherent distinction between the differently coloured molecules of light, which, since the time of Newton, every new step in optical science has tended to place in a stronger point of view. At the same time, by the easy and complete explanation this principle affords of all the more perplexing anomalies in the tints, the theory of alternate polarisation to which they were hitherto so palpable and formidable an objection, stands relieved from every difficulty, and may now be received as fully adequate to the representation of all the phenomena of the polarised rings, and entitled to rank with the fits of easy transmission and reflection, as a general and simple physical law. In fact, if we investigate by this theory a general analytical expression of the tint developed for any position and thickness of the plate, taking this element into consideration, it will be found to include all the phenomena, as far as they can be computed, while the *law* of dispersion remains unknown. But we may go yet farther. The nature of the formula furnishes an equation by which the actual quantity of the separation of the extreme red and violet axes may be deduced from observations of the tints of a very simple and accurate nature, being perfectly analogous in principle to the "method of coincidences," which has of late been applied with such success to the most delicate investigations in every department of physical science. The comparison of the results afforded by that equation, with those deduced by direct observation on homogeneous light, while it leaves nothing to desire in point of accuracy, leads to another important result, viz. that the proportionality of the minimum lengths of the periods performed by differently coloured molecules, in a doubly refracting crystal to the lengths of their fits of easy reflection and transmission, supported as it is by an induction of no ordinary extent and accuracy, is yet not universal, admitting a deviation to a very large amount. Hence must of course arise a kind of secondary deviation in the scale of tints. In crystals with two axes, however, this is masked by the much more powerful effect of the separation of the coloured axes; yet even there, is not altogether insensible in an extreme case. In the apophyllite, however, the agency of this secondary cause is placed in the fullest evidence. The application of our general formula to the anomalous tints of that body, while it proves incontestably the exact coincidence of the axes for all the coloured rays, points out at the same time a peculiarity in its action on the more refrangible extremity of the spectrum, of a nature so singular, so entirely without example in all the multitude of natural and artificial bodies hitherto examined, as to render me extremely desirous of prosecuting the research, with the aid of more perfect specimens, and improved methods of observation.

"Having arrived at the general result of a dispersion of the axes by the sole consideration of the gradation of tints in plates of various thicknesses, it becomes interesting to verify it by direct and independent observation. This I have accordingly done; and the fortunate discovery of a substance in which it is of

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enormous magnitude, puts it in our power to render the fact sensible to the eye of the most unpractised observer, by an exceedingly simple experiment, to be described in its place.'

On the Methods of cutting Rock-crystal for Micrometers. By W. H. Wollaston, M.D. — Dr. W. commences this short memoir by observing that 'for the mere purpose of examining the phænomena of double refraction, it is extremely easy for any skilful workman to combine a wedge of rock-crystal, or any other doubly refracting substance, with another wedge of crown glass opposed to it, in such a manner that a luminous object seen through them shall appear in its true place by ordinary refraction, accompanied by a second image at a small distance, produced by the extraordinary refraction of the crystal.' This combination is not suited for the purpose of the micrometer invented by the Abbé Rochon. It is not difficult, however, says Dr. Wollaston, to obtain such a section of rock-crystal as may be substituted for the wedge of glass, so that the pencil of light shall be restored to its original direction, void of colour, without diminishing the separation of the images occasioned by the first wedge.

'But since the degree to which the double refraction of rock-crystal separates the two portions of a beam of light transmitted through it, is not so great as may frequently be wished, it becomes desirable to increase this effect beyond what can be produced by the most obvious method of employing that substance; and it does appear from M. Rochon's own account of his contrivance, that he fully succeeded in accomplishing this end. But although he informs us that the means employed, as best suited to his views, had exactly the effect of doubling the amount of deviation produced by ordinary means, he has not chosen to explain the mode of construction he adopted, and has merely referred to a certain artist living at that time in Paris, who was in possession of his secret, and skilful in applying it to the construction of micrometers.

'As I have reason to think that the method to which he alludes in his memoir has never yet been described, I design, in the present communication, to explain a combination which I have found advantageous, and which I think must be the same as that of M. Rochon.

'I shall hope to render the principles of this construction intelligible to every one acquainted with the original observation of Huygens on the properties of polarised light, and to enable any competent artist to cut wedges from hexagonal prisms of rock-crystal, in the positions requisite to produce, by their combination, the double effect to which I allude.'

The author now proceeds to illustrate the principle on which his method depends, and which is certainly rendered

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very obvious and practicable: but his description will admit of no abridgment, and we must therefore refer the artist, who is desirous of being instructed on this subject, to the memoir at large.

Part II. of the Transactions for this year has just appeared.

ART. XI. *Observations on Penal Jurisprudence, and the Reformation of Criminals.* With an Appendix, containing the latest Reports of the State-Prisons or Penitentiaries of Philadelphia, New York, and Massachusetts; and other Documents. By William Roscoe, Esq. 8vo. pp. 179. Appendix, pp. 144. Cadell, &c. 1819.

THE infliction of capital punishment, as well as the state of prisons, has been of late years much discussed in this country; and it yet retains an interest in the public mind which is proportioned to the importance of the subject, and which is undiminished because the question is far from being set at rest by the abolition, or the adequate mitigation of the evils which humanity has so long shuddered in contemplating. We are prepared, therefore, to welcome every addition to our stock of investigation or of argument on these points; and on what could the pen of Mr. Roscoe be employed, which would not render its exercise acceptable to the public and creditable to himself? On topics of such delicacy and difficulty, indeed, differences of idea and shades of doubt may prevail: but, even in that case, a *collision* may be as beneficial as an *identity* of sentiment; and the truth may thus be more readily deduced than if a general conflux of thought led only to one current of opinion.

Mr. Roscoe's principal object, in these Observations, seems to be to recommend the adoption of the penitentiary system on a more enlarged scale than that on which it has hitherto been made operative in this country; and the sort of discipline which he approves in such establishments is well explained in the following passage:

'It seems indispensably necessary, in order that penitentiary establishments should succeed to their full extent, that the principle upon which they are founded should pervade, and be continually manifested through the whole establishment. That principle is *benevolence*, exerting itself in promoting the real and permanent welfare of the individuals there confined. Unless this object be fully understood and strictly adhered to, it will be in vain to expect any favourable result. The reformation of the criminal should be the *motive*, the *object*, and the *measure* of all our exertions. Every kind of corporal punishment should be

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strictly prohibited. Solitary confinement, in cases of extreme obstinacy, should alone be allowed; and this has always been found sufficient to subdue the most obdurate disposition. Every prisoner should be preserved, as far as possible, from contamination, by separate confinement at night, and by a diligent superintendence, whilst pursuing his avocations, whether alone or in company, by day. When he labours, it should be wholly for his own profit, subject to such outgoings for his maintenance, and other just and reasonable objects, *as may be defined*. Independence of character, and ability to provide for himself, are amongst the chief objects of his attainment, and these can never be acquired, unless he be encouraged to *trust to his own efforts*, and incited to *feel his own interest*. Cleanliness of person should be most strongly recommended and rigidly inforced, not only as essential to health and comfort, but as conducive to *moral order*, *rectitude*, and *self-respect*. Every disposition to improvement should be encouraged by the expectation, that a diligent perseverance in industry, obedience, and propriety of conduct will be rewarded by a diminution of the term of imprisonment. A strict attention to avoid all profane, indecent, and offensive expressions, is indispensably requisite; and even reserve, and silence, and quiet, will occasionally prove great restoratives: but above all, every effort should be made to raise their minds to a due sense of their situation and destiny, as *rational* and *immortal* beings; and (in the impressive language of a friend) "to substitute the *godly fear* of *doing wrong*, for the *slavish* fear of *punishment*." The happy consequences that have attended the humane and persevering endeavours of Mrs. Fry have demonstrated what may be accomplished, in the most hopeless cases, by kindness, good sense, and a sincere sympathy in the wants and sufferings of others. Such an example cannot fail to diffuse itself, and call forth followers, in every part of the kingdom; and there is every reason to hope, that the buildings now erecting, or to be erected, for this purpose, will be, not only in name, but in fact, PENITENTIARIES.'

In one respect, Mr. R. differs very materially from most of the writers who have recently considered the subject of punishment. They have generally come to the conclusion that punishments should be apportioned, as nearly as may be, to the degree of the crime; and that, when awarded, they should be invariably inflicted: judging that certainty both in the kind and in the extent of the punishment is one of its most important qualities. Mr. Roscoe, on the contrary, assuming as a principle that 'one only rule of punishment can be relied on, viz. that which is necessary to effect the reformation of the offender,' argues thus:

'When we speak of punishing crimes, we are in danger of being misled by a figure of speech. In fact, we do not punish *the*

the crime, but the *individual who commits the crime*; and whatever end the punishment is intended to answer, it must bear a relation to the nature, disposition, and circumstances of such individual. To hang up indiscriminately a certain number of persons, because they have committed a certain act, without any regard to the peculiar circumstances under which such act was committed, or by which every different case is distinguished, or even without any clear idea of the result to be produced, would be the height of folly, if it were not the height of injustice; and with regard to inferior punishments, it must be apparent on the slightest reflection, that the same punishment applied to different persons may produce not only a different, but a contrary effect, and *that* which may be necessary *to reform* one, may only serve *to harden another*. To apply the same punishment to all, is, therefore, a kind of *empiricism* in legislation, which pretends by *a certain specific to cure a certain crime*, without any reference to the state of the party on whom the nostrum is to be tried. The consequences of this have been most fatal to the interests of society; and under the pretext of an *impartial* administration of justice, the greatest possible diversity has always subsisted, not only in the degree of suffering sustained, but in the consequences produced. That which to one is agony, another disregards; and *transportation*, which by some may be considered as the utmost extreme of misery, may to others resemble an excursion of pleasure.* But this inequality is the least portion of the evil. The only rational object which punishment should have in view, is frustrated by this blind and indiscriminating process; and it is in consequence of this, that criminals, after having gone through some *prescriptive* mode of discipline, are again turned loose on society, "*more hardened in their crimes, and more instructed.*" On this subject, then, one of the most important that can engage the attention of the human faculties, it is highly requisite that a thorough investigation should take place; in the result of which, it may perhaps appear, that the *talisman* to which we have trusted is no longer to be relied on; that there is *no short and expeditious way* of extirpating moral evil; but that, if we wish to succeed, we must enter upon the task with a full conviction of its importance, and a sincere resolution to bend ourselves down to our labour. We must enquire into the *character*, *temper*, and *moral constitution*, of the individual,

* "The same nominal punishments are not in fact the same punishments for different individuals. If the offence be a corporal injury, the same pecuniary penalty which a rich offender would despise, would effectually ruin a poor one. *That* ignominy, which to a man of high rank would be intolerable, would be disregarded by one in a lower class. An imprisonment, which might ruin a man of business, occasion the death of a person old and infirm, and be the lasting dishonour of a woman, might be almost a matter of indifference to a person under other circumstances."—*Bentham, Théorie des Peines*, p. 29.

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and acquaint ourselves with his natural or acquired talents, his habits, and his views, in order that we may be enabled to adopt such measures for his improvement, as may be best adapted to the case. If he be *ignorant*, we must *instruct* him; if he be *obstinate*, and *arrogant*, we must *humiliate* him; if he be *indolent*, we must *rouse* him; if he be *desponding*, we must *encourage* him; and this, it is evident, cannot be accomplished without resorting to different modes of treatment, and the full exercise of those moral and sympathetic endowments, which subsist in a greater or less degree between all human beings as incident to our common nature.'

Following up this rule of punishment, the author would empower the magistrates or the superintendants of penitentiaries to remit or diminish the punishment, on assurance of reformation in the habits of the criminal. This plan of looking solely to the reformation of the criminal cannot be implicitly adopted, if the purpose of providing for the security of its members is the principle on which society takes cognizance of crimes. In case of offences committed by lunatics, Society prevents their repetition by confining the unfortunate culprits; and this is done where reformation is unattainable. In cases of murder, Society exterminates the offender, in order to render the repetition of the offence by him impossible; to prevent the outrages which might be produced by the vindictive feelings of the relatives of the deceased; and to deter others from following the example of his crime by the warning of his awful and ignominious fate. Mr. Roscoe does not absolutely express his disapprobation of the penalty of death in such cases; and yet death is a punishment which cannot have for its ground the reformation of the individual. Even where the punishment inflicted tends to produce that effect, it seems to us that Society takes such reformation into its view not so much as a ghostly counsellor acting *pro salute animæ*, with a view to produce regret and penitence for the past, as to effect such a state of mind *as may secure the community against the repetition of the offence.* The application of such a rule, however, (to waive the abuse to which the principle of considering the state as the mystical and moral regenerator of its criminals would lead,) when all the previous circumstances of a culprit's moral condition are to be considered before a punishment can be applied to his case, will to others seem, we think, from the slight enumeration of some of those circumstances given by Mr. Roscoe in the passage above extracted, a matter that is impracticable. With regard, also, to the remission of punishment, according

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ing to the reform effected in particular cases, and which the author in one place terms 'an act of strict and unalterable justice,' we doubt whether he has sufficiently adverted to the danger of lodging such discretion with any individuals whomsoever, when we reflect how liable most men are to be influenced by partialities, by caprice, or by motives still more disreputable; and if we consider, moreover, the artifices of criminals in assuming the appearance of contrition, when hypocrisy may purchase a release from confinement and toil. The evil, arising from the pardon of affected penitents, and the mischievous results from unsettling the amount of punishment awarded by the laws, have been experienced in a very great degree in the state-prisons of America; and we confess that the remarks, contained in the reports of the inspectors of those prisons, appear to us conclusive on that subject. Mr. Roscoe's grammatical argument, that 'a penitentiary where penitence is of no avail is a solecism in language,' does not strike us as very forcible; nor do we perceive any reason why that term may not be justly applied to a place in which industrious habits are acquired, and a reformation is endeavoured to be wrought in the character of criminals.

The science of penal jurisprudence seems to us to involve many very controverted questions, which require serious and unimpassioned discussion. We are sorry, therefore, that the work before us is written throughout in rather a declamatory manner: — but, notwithstanding this objection, and although we dissent from many of the positions laid down by the ingenious and benevolent author, we deem ourselves justified in recommending it strongly to the attention of all intelligent inquirers into the subjects of penal law and the discipline of prisons. It is composed entirely in the spirit of humanity; and many persons may be urged to interest themselves in these matters by the ardour and enthusiasm of Mr. Roscoe's appeal, who would have been deterred from a consideration of them by the formality of a more scientific treatise.

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ART. XII. *Essays on the Combinatorial Analysis*; shewing its Application to some of the most useful and interesting Problems of Algebra, &c. &c. By Peter Nicholson, Private Teacher of the Mathematics. 8vo. pp. 200. Longman and Co. 1818.

ART. XIII. *The Rudiments of Algebra*; in which the Subject is explicitly treated in a New Manner, &c. &c. By the same Author. 12mo. pp. 260. Longman and Co. 1819.

ART. XIV. *Essay on Involution and Evolution*; containing a New, Accurate, and General Method of ascertaining the Numerical Value of any Function of an unknown Quantity, particularly applied to the Operation of extracting the Roots of Equations. By the same Author. 8vo. pp. 92. Davis and Dickson. 1820.

We have been for some time in arrear with Mr. Nicholson, whose "Introduction to the Method of Increments" was noticed by us in vol. lxxxiii. p. 442. Since that time, the three works which form the head of this article have been published by this ingenious author, the first in 1818, the second in July, 1819, and the third in the course of the present year. We specify these dates because we conceive that it may hereafter be necessary to refer to them; in order to decide on the priority of discovery of certain formulæ and theorems, connected with a highly interesting branch of analysis.

The combinatorial analysis is a subject scarcely touched by any English author; although the work of *Hindenburgh*, a German mathematician, in which this theory was first condensed into a regular series of theorems and propositions, is not unknown to British mathematicians. We have, it is true, detached articles in several English works connected with this inquiry, but they are generally limited in their application and independent of each other; such as we may conceive the propositions of Euclid's Elements to have been, before they were embodied into one connected whole. This being the case, many of our readers will require to be informed of the first principles and general object of this new branch of algebra; and we are not aware that we can convey to them this information in more explicit terms than those of the author:

'The combinatorial analysis is a branch of mathematics, which teaches us to ascertain and exhibit all the possible ways in which a given number of things may be associated and mixed together, so that we may be certain we have not missed any collection or arrangement of them.'

From this definition, many of our readers may perhaps be led to think that the value of the inquiry is somewhat dubious; the

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the determination of the various combinations of quantities, and their several arrangements, appearing at first sight to present an object of curiosity rather than of utility. Such, however, is not the fact: because the investigation does not stop at this point, but proceeds immediately to apply the above deductions to various problems, of which the results depend on the number of combinatorial relations existing between its several co-efficients and powers. For example; in the developement of a binomial or residual quantity, although our inquiry appears in the first instance to have no connection with the doctrine of combinations, yet its numerical co-efficients are actually dependent on the number of ways in which a given quantity of things may be arranged and combined with each other. Again, in the invention of the multinomial theorem, De Moivre, in a paper read to the Royal Society in 1697, shews that, if the series $a + b\,z + c\,z^2 + d\,z^3 +$, &c. be expanded, and if the letters b, c, d, &c. be respectively expounded by 1, 2, 3, &c. (which he calls the exponents of the letters,) then, in the co-efficient of that power of z, belonging to any term in the expanded series, the sum of the factors of each literal product of the letters thus expounded will equal the index of z in that term; and the products, which constitute the co-efficients of the same power of z, will indicate every possible way of forming the exponents by the sum of the factors of each product. He explained, also, that the co-efficients may be found independently by the solution of an indeterminate equation; and that the numbers prefixed to any literal product are no other than the permutations of the letters constituting that product.

Although, therefore, the mere determination of the variety of combinations and changes, through which a certain number of things may pass under particular conditions, is, generally speaking, an object of curiosity, yet it is evident from the above statement that there are various algebraical developements, in which a ready way of deducing the number of those changes may become of considerable importance; and it is in the latter point of view that Mr. Nicholson's work appears to us to be well intitled to the attention of mathematicians.

We cannot undertake, in this place, to make our readers acquainted with more than the general views of the author; and for his particular methods we must refer to the work, which is divided into an Introduction and four Essays: the first containing the General Principles of Combinations and Permutations; and the second, the Application of the Combinatorial Analysis to Series in General. Essay 3. treats of

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of the Principles of Binomial Factors, being a preparatory branch of the Summation of Series; and the fourth and last Essay is intitled Factorials and Figurate Numbers, with their Application to Combinations. We shall dismiss this work by observing that it is open to the same objection that we formerly made to the author's "Method of Increments;" namely, a want of order and perspicuity in the detail; while, like the former work also, it indicates an inventive and original genius.

Mr. Nicholson's Rudiments of Algebra are given in a *duodecimo volume*, corresponding to the usual size and form of a school-book; and it appears by the title, preface, &c. that the author designed it for the purpose of academical instruction. How far it may succeed as such we are unable to predict; that it is not ill calculated to be employed in this way we are ready to allow: but, at the same time, as it attempts subjects with which many school-masters are unacquainted, our expectations that it will be generally introduced are not very sanguine. Those parts in which the author deviates most from preceding writers may be apparent from the ensuing extract:

'The reader will here meet with several branches of Algebra treated very differently from what he will find in any other work: and I confidently believe, that they will prove not only deviations from the beaten track, but actual improvements.

'An appropriate article upon Factorials is introduced, in order to facilitate the addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of figurate numbers; as also to render the theory of combinations, and the method of finite differences, easier to the comprehension of the student.

'A knowledge of the properties of Figurate Numbers, though little noticed by modern writers, is of the highest importance in the theory of involution, the extraction of the roots of equations, the combinatorial analysis, and in many other branches. The definition of a figurate number is formed in a manner similar to that first introduced by Legendre.

'The theory of Involution is useful to ascertain the laws by which powers are raised, and the forms of the co-efficients of a series generated by the product of binomial factors, without actual multiplication. The application of the binomial theorem is of such importance in almost every branch of analysis, that no progress could be made without it. The demonstration is simply derived from the principles of figurate numbers.

'The rule I have introduced for extracting the Roots of Equations is general and correct. It is much easier in practice, when applied to the extraction of the root of an equation of any required degree, than the common rule when applied to extract the root of a simple number of the same degree, and equally correct; for,

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for, by involving the root obtained with the powers indicated in the terms, and multiplying these powers by their respective coefficients, then adding the products and the remainder, if any, left in the result of the operation, the sum will be equal to the absolute number.

'The general principle of this method, first discovered by the celebrated Vieta, was known among the algebraists of our own country by the name of *the numeral exegesis.* Recently, however, Mr. Holdroid, a gentleman but little known to the mathematical world, has ascertained that the process depends upon the orders of figurate numbers: but though the step he thus advanced was much more important than any other improvement the principle had received since its first introduction, the method had not yet arrived at maturity; for the first part of the process remained the very same as in the numeral exegesis: and the operation required considerable simplification and regularity.

'The improvements I have made consist in freeing the process entirely of algebraic characters and symbols, and thereby changing the form of calculation into a very concise operation, which is purely arithmetical, and uniform in all its steps; as also in explaining the law by which the similar parts are performed, without the continuation of decimal fractions to the end of the operation; and, lastly, in giving a direct and satisfactory demonstration of the method, so far as it has been improved; as well as in forming the general rules, expressed in words at length, for extracting the roots of equations of all degrees; with the particular methods for obtaining the roots of quadratic and cubic equations, deduced from the general rule.

'In Elimination I have introduced the method by combination, in the notes.

'The method of Indeterminate Equations of the first degree, with two unknown quantities, will be found to be a great improvement upon that given by the ingenious Thomas Simpson. The rule I have proposed is direct, and operations are now expeditiously and briefly performed by it.

'When indeterminate equations of the first degree contain more than two unknown quantities, and it becomes necessary that the whole of the solutions should be exhibited, as must be the case when applied to the combinatorial analysis; the operations, which must all remain, to keep the work distinct, will require more space than can generally be found: to remedy this, I have contrived a very convenient method of forming them in a table, which might even have been shorter, had I not been apprehensive of rendering the process less intelligible.

'The application of Proportion to the practice of mathematics occurs in such a variety of forms, that we cannot be overstocked with properties which are so very elegant in themselves, so useful in their application, and are all derived from a source so very simple. The two last propositions I have introduced will be found useful. Their application will be found in Simpson's Euclid, Proposition VI. Plane Trigonometry.

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'The method I have used in the formula of Quadratic Equations, is taken from the *Bija Ganita*, mentioned in the introduction: it has this advantage over that hitherto employed in Europe, of preserving the equations from fractions entirely throughout the process: whereas in that commonly used, fractions are unavoidable, when the co-efficient of the single power is an odd number.

'The doctrine of Functions, which is a higher branch of Algebra, is a method of discovering the form of the operation to be applied to a variable quantity, so that the quantity resulting from such operation may possess a given property, when any given quantities are substituted for the variable quantity.

'Thus, among an endless variety of applications, suppose it were required to know the form of expanding the binomial $1+x$, the second term, x, being variable, so that when any two different values, a and b, are given to the said variable quantity, x, the products of the powers $(1+a)^n$ and $(1+b)^n$ of the new binomials, $1+a$ and $1+b$, shall be equal to the same power $\{(1+a)\times(1+b)\}^n$ of their product $(1+a)\times(1+b)$. Here we shall have the co-efficients in the expansion of $(1+x)^n$ according to any value of the exponent n, whether considered as a whole or as a fractional number, or whether affected by an affirmative or a negative sign.'

We must merely observe that Mr. Nicholson has done all that he professes to undertake in the foregoing extract, and has doubtless produced a work of considerable merit, but which is perhaps adapted rather more to the instruction of masters than to that of students.

We shall confine our subsequent remarks to his method of solving Numerical Equations, to which we briefly adverted in our Number for April last; (p. 373.) where, after having endeavoured to explain Mr. Horner's method of solving equations, we observed that Mr. Nicholson had also succeeded in attaining a method of approximation, which, though in some degree less general than that of Mr. Horner, was still fundamentally the same. We beg now to offer a few other remarks; and with this view we shall call to our aid Mr. N.'s third publication, announced at the head of this article.

In our Review just quoted, we stated that we were necessarily led to this conclusion, viz. "that these two gentlemen, by following routes altogether different, have arrived nearly at the same time at the same point of destination; and it is remarkable that it should be one which has been sought in vain by all the most eminent algebraists of the last two centuries." When this passage was written, we had not examined Mr. Nicholson's work throughout, and had not observed that Mr. N. does not claim for himself the honour of having invented the method which he has given. It appears

pears by his preface that he had obtained the first idea of it from a Mr. Holdroid, or Holdred, (for he spells the name in both ways); and the only merit which he claims is that of having reduced the principle to a practical rule. Mr. Holdred, we now learn, has been in possession of this approximation for more than ten years: but till lately, when he became acquainted with Mr. Nicholson, he seems scarcely to have been aware of the great task which he had accomplished, or he would surely not have suffered his solution to have lain for so long a time dormant. We are sorry to perceive by Mr. Nicholson's Essay on Involution, &c. that some disagreement has taken place between him and Mr. Holdred; which, like the dispute between Tartalea and Cardan, seems likely to transfer the honour of this brilliant step in analysis to a different quarter from that to which the credit is justly due.

Mr. Nicholson commences his introduction thus:

'Mr. Theophilus Holdred, a gentleman but little known in the mathematical world, some time since submitted for my inspection and opinion an original tract, containing a method of finding the roots of equations of all degrees in numbers; but from the obscurity, want of connection, and the antiquated manner in which the subject was treated, I was able to form but a very imperfect idea of the principles upon which his method was founded.

'Anxious, however, to accomplish what had been deemed by the first mathematicians a matter of the utmost importance, I resolved not to lose sight of so desirable an object. Without attending to the manner in which Mr. Holdred had considered the subject, but keeping steadily in view Newton's principle of approximation, I soon conceived that, to extract the root of an equation in numbers, it was requisite to find a series of transformed equations, of such a nature, that in every two consecutive equations the root of the former should be diminished by a single digit or denomination, which should have the greatest local value possible, not exceeding the root; and also that the process of transformation should be performed by arithmetical rules, instead of the binomial theorem, as had hitherto been practised.

'Having discovered the manner in which these desirable ends were to be obtained, together with a demonstration of the theory of the method, I communicated the result to Mr. Holdred, who admitted the simplicity of the principle; allowing it to be more concise and easier of comprehension than his own, and that it led immediately to the rule, without circuitous steps in the demonstration: at the same time he acknowledged that he entertained no idea of his rule being derived from any established principles of transformation. However, upon a further examination of his method, I perceived that it was founded upon the same principle as that upon which Raphson has founded his method of approximation; viz. that of always referring to the original equation. Considering

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sidering what I had done as an improvement, he agreed to add it, by way of an Appendix, to the tract which he proposed publishing.

'After I had pointed out many defects and obscurities in his manuscript, he agreed to write the whole anew, under my inspection, adopting such further improvements as might occur during the period of re-writing it. The improvements produced, at last, an entirely new form in his practical operations.

'I took every opportunity of recommending his work and procuring him subscribers for the publication of it. To this end I announced it in No. ccxlvii. of Tilloch's Philosophical Magazine, for November, 1818; and I also alluded to it in my Combinatorial Essays published in the same year.

'When I had finished the paper containing my demonstration, with the rules and examples that were to be subjoined to his work, I found that Mr. Holdred, certainly in opposition to his real interests, had been persuaded by an acquaintance, an utter stranger to algebraic operations, to publish his own manuscript; rejecting my improvements, on the supposition that what I had done might diminish the credit of his own performance, unless I would allow him to let them pass as his own.

'At this treatment I could not but feel greatly indignant; and hearing that a new book on algebra, containing rules and methods for extracting the roots of equations of all dimensions accurately, was in the press; and having been at considerable pains in composing the Appendix for Mr. Holdred's tract; without regarding what his intentions might be, I resolved to insert what I had done in a new work entitled Rudiments of Algebra, which I was then preparing for publication.

'My Rudiments were printed early in July, 1819, and it is remarkable that on the 1st of the same month was read to the Royal Society a paper written by Mr. Horner of Bath, and containing the demonstration of a method of finding the roots of equations of all degrees by continuous approximation.'

Without pretending to enter into the merits of this disagreement, till we have heard both sides of the question, we must repeat that we are extremely sorry for its occurrence, because it has certainly been the means of leaving Mr. Holdred far behind Mr. Horner in his claim to the discovery. We say this without intending the least disparagement to the talents of the latter gentleman: who, we have no doubt, invented the method which he has published: but it is very obvious, from what appears in this third Essay of Mr. Nicholson, that Mr. Holdred was in possession of the method long before Mr. Horner; and on this account we regret that he did not come forwards to claim the merit of the discovery before a rival had occupied the field. The law laid down in this case is, that he who publishes first is to be considered as the real inventor. Now Mr. Nicholson certainly published his account of Mr. Holdred's method of approximation before Mr. Horner's paper appeared in the Transactions of the Royal

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Royal Society, although Mr. Horner's paper was read before Mr. Nicholson's book had issued from the press. The subject is, therefore, in all probability, likely to stand in the same doubtful light in the future history of analysis with many other similar statements, which are familiar to every man who has dipped into Montucla's History of Mathematics.

Having said thus much relative to the priority of invention, we will now endeavour to give the reader some idea of the principles on which it rests. These are certainly much more elementary than we imagined when we examined Mr. Horner's paper; who seduced us out of the plain path of legitimate analytical investigations to follow him, with some labour, through the labyrinths of Arbogast's *Calcul des Dérivations:* but the conclusion of our wanderings having placed us within sight of an object so long sought in vain, we seemed to be recompensed for our toil, and were put into a good humour with the author. We are, however, now convinced that Mr. H. arrived at his results by means of the plain and sober methods of Newton and Raphson; and that all the foreign machinery, with which the article is introduced, was *ex post facto,* and brought forwards for the sake of parade, under the mistaken idea, but too often indulged, that importance is given to a subject by involving it in difficulty.

The essence of this method of approximation may be comprehended by any person who has the least notion of algebraical equations, and who has practised the usual methods taught in our present school-books on algebra.

Let $A z^n + B z^{n-1} + C z^{n-2} + \&c.\ L z = N$ be any equation, and $z = a + b + c + \&c.$; and let it be required to express N in terms or functions of A, B, C, &c. $a, b, c,$ &c.; the latter being, in our particular case, the digits of z, arranged according to their several local values.

First, if we make $v = b + c + \&c.$, then $z = a + v$, and substitute this value of z in the above equation, we shall find N equal to a similar function of v, *plus* a certain quantity divisible by a. In short, our first equation will be transformed into

$$\acute{A} v^n + \acute{B} v^{n-1} + \acute{C} v^{n-2} + \&c.\ \acute{L} v + \varphi a = N.$$

In the same manner, by substituting $v = u + b$, this last may be converted into

$$\acute{A} u^n + \acute{B} u^{n-1} + \acute{C} u^{n-2} + \&c.\ \acute{L} u + \acute{\varphi} b + \varphi a = N,$$

and so on till all the quantities $a, b, c,$ &c. have been used; and then our ultimate equation will become

$$\varphi a + \acute{\varphi} b + \acute{\varphi} c + \&c. = N.$$

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It is inconsistent with the nature of a Review to exhibit all the preceding developements at length: but, if the reader will take on himself the trouble, he will perceive that the co-efficients $A, B, C; A', B', C'$, &c. are derivable from each other by the most obvious process; and that the functions which we have denoted by $\varphi, \varphi', \varphi''$, &c. contain in them no function of b, c, &c. respectively: that is, φ contains no function of b, φ' no function of c, nor φ'' any function of d, and so on. Consequently, when an equation, such as we have assumed, is given, we may imagine it to be transformed into the equation $\varphi a + \varphi' b + \varphi'' c + \&c. = N$; in which shape the determination of the several digits becomes a mere operation in division, with this difference only, that the divisors change their value with every new figure, the same as in the usual method of extracting the square root; and, as in that case also, each new figure enters into the new divisor, and consequently some anticipation of its value becomes necessary.

The principles, then, on which this method of approximation rests, are exceedingly obvious: but some farther illustration is in course requisite before it can receive its practical application to the solution of equations. This we cannot attempt; and we regret it the less because any person can supply himself with a copy of Mr. Nicholson's Essay on Involution: which, indeed, we will add, ought to find a place in every mathematical library in the kingdom.

*** Since the above was written, Mr. Holdred's "Method of Solving Equations" has been advertized.

Art. XV. *On the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation.* By David Ricardo, Esq. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 550. 14s. Boards. Murray. 1819.

The name of this author is familiar to our readers from the successive notices which, in vols. lxiii., lxiv., lxxix., and lxxxi., we have taken of his tracts on the Bullion-question, the Corn-laws, and the means of recovering our Paper-currency from the degradation of late years: but a more general notoriety was given to him during the last year, by the adoption of his plan for the resumption of cash-payments at the Bank. The characteristic of this scheme was to make the return from paper to specie gradual and easy; a point which two good harvests and several other circumstances have fortunately concurred to promote. Our estimate of

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Mr. Ricardo's merits has differed according to the subjects of his publications; bullion and paper-currency being topics with which he was evidently familiar, while with regard to the corn-laws the case was materially different. The present work having appeared to us in its first edition less clear and less condensed than we had reason to expect from a practical man, we delayed our report and awaited a re-impression, which the increasing repute of the writer would probably not allow to be remote: — the re-impression came, but it brought with it only partial corrections: a few passages have been improved, but the book is still marked by a general dryness, and in some measure by obscurity. Yet the interest of the inquiry and the present embarrassment of our commerce and finances, induce us to appropriate to it a more than usual portion of our pages; and to endeavour, by some additional explanations with regard to the more important points, to make up for the author's deficient perspicuity.

The subject of Mr. R.'s discussion, without being altogether so comprehensive as the title implies, is of very considerable compass, and will be best comprehended by a short abstract of the preface. — The persons among whom the produce of land is divided, however numerous as individuals, form only three distinct classes; viz. the proprietors, the farmers, and the labourers, drawing their respective proportions under the names of rent, profit, and wages. The shares coming to each are very different in different stages of society; depending partly on the fertility of the soil, partly on the skill of cultivation, and, in a not less degree, on the density of that population which consumes the produce. Much as the science of political economy has been improved in the last fifty years, many interesting questions remain to be determined respecting the natural course of rent, profit, and wages; Dr. Smith and other able writers having had an incorrect idea of the principles of rent, which, in fact, were not fully developed until the appearance of some publications called forth by the discussions on the corn-laws in 1815.

Mr. Ricardo's work is divided into a number of chapters, treating successively of the constituents of value; of rent; wages; profits; taxation; poor-rates; trade, foreign and colonial; and currency. Of these various topics, we can, in course, take only a partial notice; and we shall confine ourselves to the following:

Origin of Rent. | *Principles of Taxation.*
Labour. | *Effect of heavy Taxes.*
Effects of a Tax on Rent. | *Poor-Rates.*
Profits of Capital. | *Fluctuations of Commerce.*

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Origin of Rent. — On the first settling of a country, little or no rent is paid, because there is abundance of land, and a very small proportion of it is required for the actual population. Such is at present the case in the chief part of the United States, particularly in Pennsylvania, and in the more distant territory to the westward, in which Mr. Birkbeck and so many of our countrymen have lately pitched their tents. Such also, in a very remote age, was the case of England: no rent was paid for the first cultivated lands: but, as population increased, and it became necessary to extend cultivation, a rent or premium was willingly given for lots of the land already in an improved state. By what rule is this rent or premium to be computed? If, for the sake of clearness, we call the first improved tract No. 1., and the next No. 2, we shall easily conceive that a farmer would give as much to be admitted a tenant on No. 1. as it would cost to take No. 2 from a state of nature, and bring it to an equal degree of productiveness. Population increasing, and more land being wanted, it becomes necessary to cultivate a third and hitherto neglected tract, No. 3. The rule now is to give for an occupancy in No. 2. a rent calculated on the expence necessary to bring a corresponding tract, No. 3., into a state of cultivation; and, by this time, No. 1., being farther improved than No. 2., will have risen in value. All this leads to the general and highly important conclusion that, with every step in the progress of population which shall oblige a country to cultivate inferior land, rent on all the more improved lands will experience a rise; and hence the importance to the landholder of a thriving state of trade and manufacture, attended as it is by increased population and a greater demand for the produce of the soil.

Our readers will now be enabled to form an idea of the chief object of Mr. R.'s work. Beginning with an explanation of the true principles of rent, he proceeds to offer his opinions on various topics arising partly from the above statement, and partly from his farther reasoning on the nature of wages, the profit of capital, and the operation of taxes.

Inferences from the Nature of Rent. — The chief corollary from the preceding proposition is that the price of corn in a country is regulated by the cost of its production on the land which is too poor to pay rent. An increase of population, such as we have seen during the last fifty years, by necessitating the cultivation of poor land, would raise the price of food with great rapidity, were not its effects materially lessened by several causes: viz. the application of greater capital and improved machinery to agriculture; and the adoption of various inven-

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inventions, such as the threshing-machine, all tending to economy of labour, and the effect of which, could they be carried in farming to a length in any degree resembling the extent of their application in trade and manufacture, would be to counteract the opposite cause, powerful as it is.

To create a rise of rent, it is not absolutely necessary that the produce of the ground should be augmented, as the same produce will sell for more among a population progressively increasing; because, that population requiring more food, new and inferior land must be cultivated, and the rent of the old is always estimated by the cost of improving the new. We can, therefore, have no better criterion of the progressive advance of rents than the number of inclosure-bills that pass through parliament. Rent may, in some degree, be called the difference between the produce obtained on a rich and a poor soil: but the most correct application of the term is to confine it to the payment made to the landlord for the "use of the inherent powers of the soil;" distinguishing it from the farther payment made to landlords for farm-buildings, fences, walls, &c.

We are enabled, by the preceding explanation, to understand the apparently contradictory assertion (p. 59.) that 'the price of corn would not fall, were landlords to give up a great part of their rent:' the meaning of which is that it would still be necessary to cultivate inferior soils. This necessity implies the receipt of a clear profit (or rent) by either farmer or landlord from the better soils: so that, although landlords were to relinquish to farmers the chief part of their rent, the price of corn would not be materially reduced to the consumer, the benefit being in a great measure confined to the farmer.

It is fit, however, to add that no country is limited to the productive powers of its own soil; populous communities, like Holland and England, having long been supplied from thinly peopled countries, such as Poland and the United States. Mr. Ricardo's rule, therefore, is to be understood as referable to the productive means not of a particular country, but of the civilized world in general; subject to the charges (freight, duties, and insurance) attendant on the conveyance of corn from the one to the other.

Labour.—Mr. R. begins his disquisition on this topic by distinguishing the natural and the market price of labour. The former is that which is necessary to enable the class of labourers, one with another, to support and continue their race without either increase or diminution, while the market price is the rate or price actually paid; a rate which varies

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according to the flourishing or the depressed circumstances of the community. Of the fluctuations in the market-price of labour, we have had, in late years, the most striking examples, and are enabled to refer such variations to two leading causes, — the supply of labourers, and the price of the necessaries of life. The former shews at once the cause of the great difference between Europe and the United States of America: labourers in the latter being altogether inadequate to the demand, their wages (4s., 5s., or 6s. a day) are double those of England, and triple those of the continent of Europe.

Another inquiry introduced into the early part of the volume before us is the much disputed question of a standard-measure of value; a topic which suggests several animadversions on Dr. Smith's favourite notion "that labour, or corn, the food of the labourer, is the only fit measure of value." It is easy to shew that labour, or corn, is subject to as much fluctuation of value as gold and silver: but how is the *desideratum* to be supplied? This question Mr. R. by no means undertakes to answer, being decidedly of opinion (p. 10.) that no commodity of unvarying value is to be found; and that all which we can at present accomplish is to ascertain the essential qualities of a standard, that we may know the causes of variation in the relative value of commodities. When engaged with this subject, we turned with eager expectation to the author's chapter on 'the Rent of Mines,' in the hope of meeting with some calculation or remark on the probable effect of improved machinery on the American mines: but on this topic he does not enlarge; nor does he seem aware of the highly important consequences that would ensue from the adoption of a measure of price, we do not say of permanent value, but of less variation than the precious metals. He contents himself with observing that the fall of the value of the metals has been less rapid than it appears, the remarkable fluctuations of the present age having been caused by the over-issue of paper and the enormous increase of taxation. He might have added that, on the continent of Europe, the value of the precious metals appears to have decreased about thirty per cent. in the last thirty years, which is chiefly to be attributed to the increase of taxation.

Effects of a Tax on Rent. — The discrimination made by Mr. R. as to the nature of rent of land, strictly so called, is of importance in connection with the question whether such rents would be a proper object of taxation. No discouragement to cultivation would take place, as long as the tax did not affect the income derived by a landlord from the capital invested in farm-

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farm-buildings and other improvements: but the difficulty would consist in drawing the line of distinction. How different would be the operation of such a tax from that of tithes, which fall wholly on the consumer, and affect lands of bad as well as good quality! How different, also, in its progressive increase; for, while a tax on rent would rise only with a rise of net income, tithes have a double source of augmentation, not only rising in value but increasing in amount! Thus, when the best quality of land, called, for the sake of distinction, No. 1., alone was cultivated, tithes were levied on a comparatively small quantity of produce, — suppose 100,000 quarters: but, when the increased demand for corn led to the cultivation of No. 2., tithes were collected on 150,000 quarters; and, when No. 3. was brought under tillage, on 200,000, &c.

A tax on the rent of land would differ also from our present land-tax; which, even at its outset in 1692, was not levied equally on the rents, and has of course lost all pretensions to accuracy of assessment. It is long since Dr. Smith declared the "ground-rent of houses and the ordinary rent of land to be very fit objects of taxation," being a species of income enjoyed by the owner without exertion, and the diminution of which would be attended with no discouragement to productive industry. Yet, with all these arguments in its favour, it is very questionable how far any kind of property ought to be taxed more than another. Without coinciding with Mr. Ricardo in the notion that extra burdens might make land an object for speculators and gamblers, we are of opinion that no one can foresee the degree of remote mischief that may follow a deviation from the rule of strict equality in the imposition of public burdens.

Another of the topics discussed by this author is the operation of a tax of a much more comprehensive character, — on raw produce. Such a tax has been long since introduced into France under the name of *foncier*: but it is not likely to be carried to any great extent in this country, where the power of legislating is vested in the proprietors of the soil.

When treating (p. 335.) of the consequences of admitting foreign corn more freely than at present, Mr. R. makes an approach to practical illustration. The English farmer would then be in the case of a manufacturer possessed of machinery out of date, and so far surpassed by other machinery that the commodities made by him no longer afforded a profit. Great individual loss and distress would, doubtless, as in 1815 and 1816, ensue from the increased import of foreign corn: but the quantity raised at home would not, in his opinion, be

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materially reduced, because farmers would raise corn at a low rate, rather than abandon tillage on any great portion of their soil. Such a change would, doubtless, increase the fund for the maintenance of labour, by lessening the fund (rent) appropriated to the unproductive class: but the boldest reasoner could scarcely undertake to prove that this would form a counterpoise to the numberless evils which attend a revolution of property.

Enhancement of the Price of Provisions. — This evil, which unfortunately may be termed the great distinctive feature of our country in the present age, may be stated to arise from the following causes: 1st, A deficiency of supply, occasioned partly by bad seasons, (such as 1795, 1799, 1800, 1809, 1811); 2dly, The progressive increase of our consumers, as shewn by the population-lists; 3dly, The fall in the value of money, owing partly to taxation, and partly to over-issue of paper; 4thly, Increase of agricultural expences during war, partly from taxes, (such as that of horses employed in husbandry,) and more from the rise of wages and poor-rates. The operation of these causes, powerful as it has been, would have shewn itself much greater had not agriculture been aided by the use of machinery and division of labour; the tendency of which, as already explained, is both to cheapen and to increase production.

On the corn-laws Mr. Ricardo does not enter at great length: but his reasoning on collateral topics sufficiently shews that he laments and deprecates the existence of that unfortunate system. In one part (p. 332.) he enlarges on the necessity of their progressive abrogation: but the *ratio* of proposed decrease, 4s. or 5s. a quarter annually, recommended by a writer whom he quotes with approbation, is far too rapid. We, who have always regretted, and, as far as it was in our power, opposed the corn-laws, should be satisfied with such a decrease in five years; or, we had almost said, in ten.

Profits of Capital. — The natural tendency of public improvement is well known by political economists to lessen the *ratio* of profit on capital: thus in Holland for nearly two centuries, and in England for more than one century, capital has in general afforded a smaller per centage than in France, Germany, or the rest of Europe. This fact is ascribed by the author not to a local increase of capital, but to the augmented expence of raising subsistence from land of inferior quality. Population increases and must be supported; hence the necessity of additional labour; and hence, according to Mr. R., a deduction from the *ratio* of profit in proportion to the increase of wages, because wages never continue much above that rate

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rate which nature and habit require. A tax on wages, were so strange a measure to be adopted, would soon resolve itself into a tax on profits; and the case would be the same with a tax on raw produce as long as a society was in an advancing state: in other words, as long as the landlords and farmers should be enabled to transfer the burden to the consumers. Doctrines so comprehensive in their nature, and so little expected by a number of the author's readers, ought to have been supported with the greatest care; not merely by a series of general reasonings, but by specific references and statistical illustrations: without which it is scarcely possible for any person to accompany Mr. R. in his deduction, or to give his assent to a conclusion so much more comprehensive than its alleged cause.

Principles of Taxation.—Mr. Ricardo's observations on this highly important department of political economy are almost all of a speculative nature; containing little in the shape of specific propositions, but much disquisition on the general tendency of taxes, whether on luxuries, on necessaries, or raw produce, &c.

Our limits permitting us to add very little to the preceding paragraphs, we must content ourselves with a short but summary quotation:

'Taxation can never be so equally applied as to operate in the same proportion on the value of all commodities, and still to preserve them at the same relative value. It frequently operates very differently from the intention of the legislature by its indirect effects. We have already seen that the effect of a direct tax on corn and raw produce, is, if money be also produced in the country, to raise the price of all commodities, in proportion as raw produce enters into their composition, and thereby to destroy the natural relation which previously existed between them. Another indirect effect is, that it raises wages and lowers the rate of profits; and we have also seen in another part of this work that the effect of a rise of wages, and a fall of profits, is to lower the money-prices of those commodities which are produced in a greater degree by the employment of fixed capital.' (P. 293.)

The author is adverse to the legacy-duty, on the ground that such a tax, falling on capital, impairs the fund for the maintenance of labour: but, amid all the difficulties in which taxation is involved, we are inclined to look less unfavourably on this tax, accompanied as it is by an addition to the pecuniary means of the payer; which in many cases leads to an increased rate of expenditure, and may be said to render this a tax on superfluities. Far different is the case with regard to a heavy stamp-tax on the sale of land, the sale of houses,

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of a bond for money borrowed; transactions which in France, as well as among us, are burdened beyond all the rules of true policy.

Effects of heavy Taxes. — We come next to a topic of great interest in the present situation of our country, loaded as we are with taxes on necessaries, and obliged consequently to pay higher wages than our continental neighbours. The rise, says Dr. Smith, "in the money-price of all commodities, which is peculiar to any single country, tends to discourage more or less every sort of industry carried on within it, and to enable foreign nations, by furnishing almost all sorts of goods at less expence than its workmen, to undersell them not only in the foreign but even in the home market."

To this doctrine Mr. R. does not wholly subscribe; taxes, as far they affect the labouring poor, being chiefly paid (p. 284.) out of the diminished profits of capital: but, admitting that to be the case, are we justified in inferring that the evil would be materially less than Dr. S. anticipates; or can we join with the present writer in the singular conclusion, (p. 283.) that 'a generally high price of commodities in consequence of taxation would be of no disadvantage to a state?' As if to leave no doubt of the nature of his views, he adds (p. 305.) that the 'amount of taxes and the increased price of labour in a country does not, in his opinion, place it under any other disadvantage with respect to foreign countries except the unavoidable one of paying these taxes.' He subjoins, indeed, that it becomes the interest of every contributor to withdraw his shoulder from the burden, and, in many cases, to remove himself and his capital to another country: but ought he not to have stated the case more strongly; and to have admitted that high taxes and their accompaniment, a high price of labour, operate as a premium on the competition of foreign states, by inducing our countrymen to emigrate, not merely in order to escape taxes but to employ their capital and their labour abroad? Has not a British capitalist a strong motive to try the practicability of manufacturing goods in France or Germany for the supply of the United States? Fortunately, the great branches of our manufacture, our cottons, our hardware, and as yet our woollens, are, from the command of fuel and other favourable circumstances, in no great danger of competition: but the case is very different as to silk, linen, and other articles for which we possess no special advantage. It would at present be very desirable to throw open the export and import of manufactures generally: but would not government, by doing this under our actual pressure of taxation, incur the hazard of sending out of the kingdom

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both capitalists and workmen, to labour abroad for the supply of the home-market? Mr. R. is a calculator, but he has favoured us with no arguments drawn from the statistics of Germany, France, and the Netherlands; the countries most likely to enter into competition with us in the results of productive labour. — In another passage, he observes:

'Notwithstanding the immense expenditure of the English government during the last twenty years, there can be little doubt but that the increased production on the part of the people has more than compensated for it. The national capital has not merely been unimpaired, it has been greatly increased, and the annual revenue of the people, even after the payment of their taxes, is probably greater at the present time than at any former period of our history. For the proof of this we might refer to the increase of population, — to the extension of agriculture, — to the increase of shipping and manufactures, — to the building of docks, — to the opening of numerous canals, as well as to many other expensive undertakings; — all denoting an increase both of capital and of annual production.' (P. 170.)

We must dissent in a great measure from the opinion expressed in this paragraph, and unfortunately from the most consolatory part of it; viz. that the increased wealth of the country has balanced, or more than balanced, the expenditure of government. Had such been the case, the return of peace would have caused no *general* or at least no *lasting* derangement. To estimate our situation compared with that of 1792, it is necessary to distinguish between the value of money in the two periods, and to consider 100l. in 1792 as equivalent, or nearly equivalent, to 140l. at present. Mr. Ricardo takes no notice of the enormous addition (above 23,000,000l.) made, in the intervening period, to the interest of our national debt; nor of the increase of our poor-rates; nor of the necessity of submitting to the burden of the corn-laws, — a burden unknown in 1792. He is doubtless right in the opinion that taxes lessen the power of accumulating: but a country may, for a time, be brought into such a state as to give an unnatural stimulus to the application of its productive powers; and might we not argue that the increase of population, and the extension of our agriculture and manufactures, were, in some degree, the consequence of the war; of the extra premium afforded by it for the employment of hands and of capital; or of the expenditure of the vast loan contracted by government on the credit of posterity?

Poor-Rates. — On this topic Mr. R. is clear and satisfactory; shewing that the poor-rates, though ostensibly levied on the rent, are in fact levied on the annual value of land. Let

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Let us suppose two farmers to rent land of different quality and extent, at the same sum of 100l. each; the one to lay out money on improving his land, and the other to be stationary; the former would pay the higher poor-rates, expecting, however, to be indemnified by the price of corn, for which he had made his previous calculations. Poor-rates are paid in a greater proportion by agriculturists than by manufacturers, the latter being rated only according to the value of the buildings in which their work is carried on, without regard to that of the machinery, labour, or stock, which they may employ. By whom are poor-rates eventually discharged? During the late war, and as long as the price of corn continued to rise, they fell evidently on the consumer: but, since the peace, the case has been different; and were we to suppose a state of agriculture permanently retrograde, the poor-rates would fall during the current leases on the farmers, and at the end of these leases on the landlords. — Next, as to the operation of our poor-law system on the comfort of the lower orders. Far from fulfilling the benevolent views of the legislature, these laws have a tendency to produce general impoverishment; — among the higher orders by deduction from their property, and among the lower by multiplying their number. They remove the restraint on improvident marriages, and give to indolence a portion of the wages of industry: they call away the exertions of labour from every object, except that of providing mere subsistence; and they counteract what it should be the object of humanity to inculcate in all countries, viz. a taste in the lower orders for comforts and enjoyments, first as a preventive of too early marriage, and next as a refuge in distress, their situation in such an event admitting of a reduction of comforts without driving them to the extremity of want. Still the author is (p. 104.) perfectly aware of the very gradual course to be followed in the removal of the poor-laws, interwoven as they now are with our political system.

Commerce. — Mr. R. has very properly remarked that the capital of poor nations is employed in those lines in which a great quantity of labour is supported at home: while in rich countries capital flows into the occupations that require the smallest proportion of labour at home; such as the carrying trade, and the distant foreign trade, where profits are in proportion to the capital. This, it is well known, was the case of Holland; and this is, in a great measure, at present the case of England. France, an empire far less provided with capital than either, has little foreign trade, and comparatively little machinery: many operations in agriculture, in manufacture, and in domestic life, which are performed in this

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country by implements and engines of one kind or another, being executed in France by manual labour. — Adverting, in the next place, to those sudden changes in trade which have been so frequent and so remarkable during the present age, Mr. Ricardo observes that, subject as agriculture is to fluctuation, manufactures are thus liable in a still higher degree: corn is of indispensable consumption: but one kind of manufactures may be supplanted by another, merely from the taste and caprice of the purchaser. The distress, moreover, is not limited to the country in which it first appears; since those to which its exports are transmitted never fail to participate in its embarrassment, for the plain reason that no state can long import unless it also exports, and *vice versâ*. The mercantile distress of 1816 was felt not only in England but on the Continent; the returning prosperity of 1818 was diffused over an equally great extent; and, finally, the embarrassments of the last year, though carried to the greatest extreme in Lancashire and Yorkshire, were productive of a sensible languor throughout the Netherlands, Germany, and France.

In what manner does a sudden and general change, such as a transition from peace to war, produce commercial embarrassment? It affects the rate of interest, calls capital into a new direction, and often renders it inexpedient to keep money where it was previously invested. Thus, when we assumed a warlike attitude in the end of 1792, the three per cent. Consols fell, in a few weeks, from 95 to 75; or, in other words, the prospect of war raised the rate of interest one per cent. throughout the kingdom. Hence arose a suspension of a variety of speculations that were undertaken on the anticipation of an abundance of capital, such as canals, manufactories, and buildings; followed by that long list of bankruptcies in the spring of 1793, which will not be forgotten in the life-time of the present generation. A transition from war to peace, though apparently less hostile to commerce, is replete with loss and embarrassment. A general fall in the value of merchandise, and still more a general reduction of farming profits, with a superabundance of labourers, and a cessation of government-purchases, are evils too legibly recorded in our commercial and financial history since 1814. We must not, however, says Mr. R., (who maintains throughout his character of confident calculation,) mistake the distress proceeding from a revulsion of trade for a lapse into a retrograde state of society: the latter being altogether unnatural to an active people, whose tendency is to increase their wealth, or, at all events, to sustain it undiminished. On this point we hope and believe that his opinions are correct; and we trust that

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all our sufferings and all our losses, in late years, can be shewn to be the result of causes which are either temporary, or, when permanent, do not imply an amount of injury calculated to lead to a retrograde state. The distressed condition of our customers in the United States, and on the continent of Europe, are of the former description; and, although the extra pressure of our taxation certainly is in a great measure of a permanent character, it remains to be seen whether, when the extent of evil shall be fully understood, enough of patriotism does not exist on the part of the higher and the middling classes, to submit to a sacrifice of property sufficient to enable our productive labourers to maintain a competition with other countries. — To a property-tax Mr. R. is not friendly: the measure, indeed, at the time when he composed his book, had been too lately negatived in the House of Commons to render it advisable as a fresh proposition; and he is, moreover, of opinion that the extent of ultimate loss would be less if individuals were to give government a portion of their capital instead of their income. In one important point, the folly of expecting relief from the extreme measure of cancelling the national debt, we fully coincide with Mr. Ricardo, although our course of reasoning would be somewhat different. Such a measure, or even an approximation to it, is forbidden not only by the laws of equity, but by the plain reason that the reduction of so large a sum of capital would be followed by a corresponding diminution of the fund appropriated to our productive industry, and would make our country as bare of capital as her neighbours on the Continent.

We must now turn from the arguments and the substance of this book to its character in point of composition. Of the arrangement, as far as it regards the succession of subjects, we do not much complain: but it is greatly deficient in that analyzing process which ought to shew itself in paragraph-titles, and heads of sections, and which tends so effectually to simplify an abstract and difficult course of reasoning. How discouraging, for example, is it to open the first section with so perplexed a title as this; 'the value of a commodity, or the quantity of any other commodity for which it will exchange, depends on the relative quantity of labour which is necessary for its production, and not on the greater or less compensation which is paid for that labour.' Passages of equal intricacy occur in every chapter, and render it a matter of no little difficulty to the reader to ascertain the truth or detect the fallacy of the arguments; for it is neither a first nor a second perusal that will familiarize him with the chain of reasoning. Obscurity is always a ground of distrust; and when

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when to the impression excited by it we add the discovery of a mistake or oversight of magnitude, such as we have pointed out regarding the supposed increase of our national wealth during the war, the reader must find his confidence considerably shaken; and it is not likely to be strengthened by the ardour discovered by Mr. R. in combating the opinions of others, and in entering the lists with eminent names, such as Smith and Say. He reasons, indeed, with perfect temper, and without any assumption of superiority: but his success against first-rate economists is such (see the fourth edition of Say's *Traité d'Economie Politique*, pp. 338. 342.) as we might expect on the part of an assailant who, some years ago, could not be said to have done more than learn the rudiments of his art. He is more fortunate in opposing certain opinions of Mr. Malthus: such as the notion (p. 509.) that to encourage marriage a previous provision of food is necessary; whereas that demand for labour and rise of wages, which prompt to marriage, will infallibly lead to the production of the necessary supply of food. In another part also, (pp. 528. 531.) the writer argues with effect against an opinion which, if not directly asserted, seems taken for granted by Mr. Malthus; viz. that the diminution of the gross income of a country implies a corresponding diminution of its net income.

Mr. Ricardo appears to have relied for a correction of his deficient perspicuity on his Index, which is clear and minute: but, in a work on political economy, nothing can countervail a want of method and arrangement in the book itself. The index, moreover, is frequently expressed in too absolute and comprehensive terms; so as occasionally to excite disappointment on referring to the text. Mr. R., like M. Necker, affords an example, certainly of rare occurrence, of a practical man forsaking his previous routine, and assuming the generalizing habits of a literary inquirer: but his mode of investigating is not exactly that which the practice of business seems naturally to suggest. Instead of accumulating facts, or looking round in the first instance for *détails positifs*, he enters at once into the field of speculative reasoning; and he has written largely on the productive powers of the soil, without giving any historical sketch of the remarkable fluctuations in agricultural prices during the present age, or the not less remarkable fluctuations of commerce. His mind is active and ingenious: but it seems to pursue its object with too much rapidity, and launches into sweeping conclusions without the necessary qualifications. He proceeds, says M. Say, "by absolute principles, as if writing on geometry: but in political economy this

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this method is full of peril, and ought to be distrusted. In connection with this defect we must notice the introduction of improbable suppositions, and the discussion of strange contingencies; among others, a disquisition of ten or twelve pages on a tax on gold!

If these remarks be not flattering, we must not conclude without declaring our reluctance to part on unfriendly terms with a writer who is evidently possessed of no small share of ability and public spirit. Our complaint is not that Mr. Ricardo has done little for the science, but that, having attempted too much, a degree of obscurity has been cast over his labours; and that the offering which he has presented at the shrine of his country is enveloped in folds which conceal it from the public eye. In what manner, then, is he to succeed in obtaining a favourable reception for his future labours on national economy? Let him, whether he recasts the present volume or gives a new work to the public, subject his course of reasoning to a severe scrutiny; dealing less in unqualified assumptions, and more in a reference to facts and circumstances. If inclined to indulge a spirit of disquisition and speculation, let him transfer all minor digressions to notes, or an appendix, preserving the text for the great chain of his reasoning; recollecting, above all, the time and labour required to understand the particular department with which he has shewn the world that he is thoroughly conversant, we mean, *money and exchange;* and inferring, from that unavoidable sacrifice, the hazard of venturing himself to embrace in his speculations the whole range of political economy.

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For DECEMBER, 1820.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 16. *Ellen Fitzarthur:* a Metrical Tale, in Five Cantos. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

We had not finished the unassuming and elegant little introduction to this poem, before we were prepossessed in favour of the author; and this prepossession is fully justified by the work itself: for, although it cannot boast any peculiar originality of design or vigour of execution, it may lay claim to a natural and simple strain of feeling, to correct expression, and to the melody of verse. Our readers shall judge for themselves; and it is with much pleasure that we refresh both their minds and our own with such unexceptionable extracts from the compositions of a writer, who

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who has evidently the sense and the spirit to avoid the dazzling but vicious style of his more favoured contemporaries.

The subject of the extract immediately subjoined will be sufficiently revealed by itself; and indeed we purposely refrain from diminishing the interests of this little book by any unnecessary analysis of its contents:

'When by that hearth, so brightly blazing,
The father on his child was gazing,
While she, the wintry hours to cheer
With native woodnotes charmed his ear,
(Notes to that partial ear excelling
The loftiest strains from science swelling,)
Or light of heart, in youthful glee
With converse innocent and free
Beguiled the time, or turned the page
Of Holy Writ, or learning sage,
Or caught, inspired, the glowing theme
Of lofty bard, or minstrel's dream,
Till in her eyes a kindling fire
Sparkled reflected from the lyre —
Oh! then, while gazing on her face,
He watch'd each wildly varying grace,
Till silent rapture's tender tear
Dimmed on his eyes, a sight so dear:
With grateful love, his heart o'erflowing,
To Heav'n with pious transport glowing,
Poured out its speechless tribute there,
In praise no language could declare.

'If there is happiness below,
In such a home she's shrined —
The human heart can never know
Enjoyment more refined,
Than where that sacred band is twined
Of filial and parental ties,
That tender union, all combined
Of Nature's holiest sympathies!

'Tis friendship in its loveliest dress!
'Tis love's most perfect tenderness!
All other friendships may decay,
All other loves may fade away;
Our faults or follies may disgust
The friend in whom we fondly trust,
Or selfish views may intervene,
From us his changeful heart to wean;
Or we ourselves may change, and find
Faults to which once our love was blind;
Or ling'ring pain, or pining care,
At length may weary friendship's ear,
And love may gaze with altered eye,
When beauty's young attractions fly.

But

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But in that union, firm and mild,
That binds a parent to his child,
Such jarring chords can never sound,
Such painful doubts can never wound.
Tho' health and fortune may decay,
And fleeting beauty pass away —
Tho' grief may blight, or sin deface
Our youth's fair promise, or disgrace
May brand with infamy and shame,
And public scorn, our blasted name —
Tho' all the fell contagion fly
Of guilt, reproach, and misery;
When love rejects, and friends forsake,
A parent, tho' his heart may break,
From that fond heart will never tear
The child whose last retreat is there!
Oh, union, purest, most sublime!
The grave itself, but for a time
Thy holy bond shall sever;
His hand who rent, shall bind again
With firmer links thy broken chain,
To be complete for ever!'

We trust that we shall not be deemed to have transcribed too much from this portion of the work; and we must now reverse the picture by another selection:

'What thoughts of mournful interest
On Ellen's lonely vigils prest!
What fond and fruitless retrospect
Of youthful hopes untimely wrecked!
Then, to her own forsaken home,
Unchecked, would busy fancy roam,
Recalling with minutest care
Each scene, and every object there;
Recording trifles, once past by
With cold or unobservant eye;
Now sacred things by mem'ry traced;
Green islands — seen from exile's waste.
When by her taper's sickly ray
She watched the evening hours away,
List'ning for steps, she'd learnt to know
'Mongst all that throng'd the street below —
Then — whispered thought — "those passing feet
Are hurrying on some friend to greet;
Those eager steps are hast'ning by
To some dear home, some kindred tie —
Alas! no kindred heart, for me
Awaits in fond expectancy —
Alas! no home for me prepares
The welcome sweet of social cares;
That lovely moon, so calm and pale,
Now gazes on my native vale: —

Oh,

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Oh, star of night! thy beams may look
On its thick shades, and rippling brook,
But Ellen's eyes no more must dwell
On the sweet scene she loves so well;
And does thy peaceful lustre shine
On the dear home that once was mine?
On my own lattice dost thou gaze,
Whence oft I've watched thy silv'ry rays?
And dost thou touch with beams as bright,
The jess'mine's starry clusters white?
At this lone hour, mild planet! say,
Does my dear father weep and pray
For the poor exile, far away? —
What tho' his once indulgent ear
Refused her pleading voice to hear,
He cannot from his heart expel
All thought of her he loved so well.
He cannot from his heart erase
All record of her infant days,
When widowed love was wont to trace
Her mother's likeness in her face,
And print the blessing on her cheek,
Contending feelings could not speak: —
Oh! could he see those features now,
This faded form, and care-marked brow,
Nor for my mother's sake restore
Her orphan to his heart once more?
Ah, mother! would I were at rest
In thy dark grave, on thy cold breast;
All hearts reject me, or forsake,
And mine — is mine too hard to break?
No — but one hope — one int'rest dear —
Detains the wretched loit'rer here —
A mother's hope — ah, tender thought!
The last with earthly comfort fraught."'

These verses are, in our judgment, composed in that sensible manner which, though it may purchase no wreath of immortality for the author, will secure for him the favour of many blameless readers, and will never bring the blush of shame on his own cheek. Perhaps it is altogether undesirable to encourage the *ruling passion* of our countrymen and countrywomen for poetical reputation: but, if they *must* write, if the strong impulse will not let them rest, we exhort them not to render the exercise a waste of intellect as well as of time, by writing without consideration either of the sentiments or the diction of their poems: — by rushing, as it were, headlong into that *mud-pool* of passion and poetry, where so many of their fellows have plunged, like the Smedley of the Dunciad: but whence they have not, like the follower of Smedley, risen again to light, and "mounted far off among the swans of Thames."

The present volume concludes with two very feeling tributes to the memory of our good old king.

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Art. 17. *Woman's Will — A Riddle!* An Operatic Drama, in Three Acts, as performing at the Theatre Royal, English Opera House. By Edmund L. Swift, Esq. To which is prefixed, Dryden's Chaucer's "Wife of Bath's Tale." 8vo. 2s. 6d. J. J. Stockdale. 1820.

"'Tis woman's will, TO HAVE HER WILL!"

Neither the riddle nor its solution seems to us to have point enough to supply a dramatic representation with sufficient interest; and, in the Opera before us, no adequate offence is committed by Cesario to warrant the Duchess in imposing the penalty of death on him if his brains do not save his head. If, however, the author should defend this deficiency by attributing the judgment to *woman's caprice*, which is only another term for '*Woman's Will*,' we must not oppose, but allow him the benefit of his plea. We the more willingly accord this point, indeed, because the story in all other respects is well told, and exhibits more care and taste than the common run of "operatic dramas." At the same time, we would hint to the author that, though we have a *ravenous appetite* for fun and drollery, and are not overnice in weighing a clown's comicalities, we are soon satiated with the wit that comes only from the larder. In our opinion, the social jollity of the toper is far more productive of humour than the solitary enjoyments of the glutton.

The following song by Cesario is a fair specimen of the poetry, which is not destitute of merit:

'The heart of a woman! that mixture of wiles,
Neither seen in her frowns, nor displayed in her smiles;
No cunning can catch it, so secret and sly,
And 'tis guarded alike by her lip and her eye.

'Logicians may look in the face of the fair,
But the pulse of her heart does not palpitate there;
And philosophers idly may puzzle their brains,
To read on her cheek what her bosom contains.

'Oh woman! how far have I journeyed to meet
A teacher so kind, of a lesson so sweet!
From the glance of thine eye let the mystery shine,
And the porch of the temple shall lead to the shrine.'

Chaucer's "Wife of Bath's Tale," from which the story is dramatized, should have been added as an afterpiece, rather than as a 'prelude;' since none of us like to be told the point of a story before we read it.

Art. 18. *Original, Pathetic, Legendary, and Moral Poems, intended for Young Persons.* Being inculcative of the Principles of Religion and Virtue, clothed in the alluring Garb of Amusement. By Richard Bennett, Carlisle-House School, Lambeth. 12mo. Boards. Scatcherd and Letterman. 1820.

If it were necessary that the numerous poetic and other works, which

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which have a monthly claim on our attention, should possess a *positive* degree of merit to intitle them to undergo the critical ordeal, we believe that we should be spared considerable trouble, and that the volume with the '*alluring*' title before us might have slept quietly on our shelves. It is, however, in fact, not less our office to expose false taste, and inferiority, or even mediocrity of poetical composition, than to discover and point out instances of its exquisite truth and beauty. We would, therefore, tell Mr. Bennett that such lines as the following are scarcely intitled to the consideration *of youth*, or adapted to convey the least instruction or amusement to persons of any age or nation; except, perhaps, on the score of epicurism or gluttony. They bear the attractive title of 'Plumb-pudding; spoken December, 1818;' and form a tolerable specimen of the composition of the whole:

'Dear friends combine, my voice t' inspire,
And sing a dish we all admire,
Though seen each day, 't would never tire,
'Tis call'd Plumb-pudding!

'And it shall be my aim to prove
To all around, that I above
Each other dish this dainty love,
Plumb-pudding!' &c. &c.

Throughout the volume, Mr. B. has formed his style on the mistaken principle of supposing a child to be incapable of understanding the language of reason and common sense, than which nothing can be in fact more unfounded; and that, in order to promote the views of rational and sound education, we must begin by making use of the low and ridiculous phraseology, which disgraced the pages of our books of education until the close of the last century.

Art. 19. *Jephtha's Sacrifice;* a Poem, in Two Books. By R. P. Shilton, Author of the Fall of Messina, Miscellaneous Poems, &c. 4to. pp. 32. Baldwin and Co.

The ground of Jephtha's vow has been occupied by a poet of no mean or moderate reputation; and Mr. Smedley is calculated to reflect quite as much honour on the Seaton prize, as that prize can confer on him. The present work is not likely to disturb him on the seat which he has chosen in the regions of the sacred Parnassus; and very few lines will be sufficient to shew that Mr. Shilton must be contented with a humbler station.

Jephtha is introduced on his return to Mizpeh, after his victory over the Ammonites: he addresses his soldiers; and then the poem proceeds:

'So Jephtha spake, and onward tower'd amidst
Re-echoing applause: he sought his couch,
And Nature, yielding to fatigue, reclin'd
On Slumber's bosom. But not mildly kind
Nor leniently benign, did Sleep diffuse
His soporific o'er the warrior's brow.

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Creative Fancy rang'd, in horror's garb,
Terrific phantoms, mimically wild,
Incongruous, incoherent, big with omen,
Flitting around, in seeming piteous wail.
Fev'rish and unrefresh'd he languid woke,
Nor met the lustre of Day's rising orb
With bland alacrity; not in such guise
Th' invigorated partners of his warfare.
Cheerful they hail'd the bright orient beam
That shot athwart the slowly-rising mist;
All was hilarity and jocund smile:
The soft embrace of conjugal affection
In smooth anticipation's mirror shone;
Their prattling infants stood, confest, in vision,
And happy home engross'd each mental pow'r.

'When, on the left, a sudden yell, a shriek
Most dismal, soul-appalling, rang around.
On a bare crag, o'er peering Jabbok's vale,
A squalid form, in tatter'd vestments, rear'd
His pond'rous arm, in menacing derision;
Black locks dishevell'd, in the airy gust,
Wav'd threat'ning round a visage, gaunt by famine:
His eager eye, envenom'd by disdain,
Scowl'd on the host below; and, in a voice
As of assembled thunders, thus the fiend
Accosts the *horrent*, fascinated chief.'

It may appear unnecessary to point out the faults of this passage: but, for the author's sake, we would observe that 'sleep diffusing *his soporific*' may do well enough for the phraseology of a fine-spoken apothecary, but is not adapted either to sacred or profane verse; that

'Cheerful they hail'd the bright orient beam'

is a line of deficient metre, or very singular acceptuation; that the line

'All was hilarity and *jocund smile*,'

excites any thing but smiles in the reader; that 'smooth anticipation's mirror' is very like nonsense; and that the ill-omened prophet on the rock is a very Wolverhampton representation of Gray's bard.

Were we to prolong our quotations, we fear that we should be obliged to multiply our censures; and we shall therefore give them rather an abrupt termination.

NOVELS.

Art. 20. *Sir Francis Darrell;* or, The Vortex. By R. C. Dallas, Esq., Author of *Percival, Aubrey, Morland,* &c. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

Consider-

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Considerable powers of thought and force of language are exhibited in this novel, which also displays several pleasing characters and humorous scenes: but some of the incidents are highly improbable, such as the *Monument*-scene in the second volume, page 203., and Delmont 'drinking his tea out of the same cup' in which he had through mistake given poison to his mistress, vol. iv. p. 199. — Too many profane allusions and libertine principles are introduced in the letters of Sir Francis and his friend Vernon, even although they are combated at the conclusion of the work; and some verbal errors also occur, such as, in vol. i. p. 154., 'his shunning *of* me.' Vol. iii. p. 61., 'I have *rode* over.' Vol. iv. p. 125., 'The exertions of my mind have *shook* my frame,' &c. &c.

Art. 21. *The Crusaders;* an Historical Romance of the 12th Century. By Louisa Sidney Stanhope, Author of "The Bandit's Bride," &c. &c. 12mo. 5 Vols. 1l. 7s. 6d. Boards. Newman and Co. 1820.

A romance of moderate merit, but tolerably free from anachronisms, and evidently written with a practised and fluent pen.

POLITICS.

Art. 22. *A Letter to Lord John Russell*, on the Necessity of Parliamentary Reform, as recommended by Mr. Fox; and on the Expediency of repealing the Corporation and Test Acts. 8vo. pp. 76. Hunter. 1819.

We have here a spirited and powerful appeal, but temperate at the same time, and respectful, to the people and to their representatives in parliament, on the subjects expressed in the title-page. The author is himself a friend to triennial parliaments, but deprecates the reproach that reformers have not yet brought forwards or agreed on any specific plan, as being a miserable excuse to evade discussion. He adopts the principle by which Dr. Jebb was guided, when he recommended the junction of all the friends of reform in the year 1782; and which was sanctioned by Mr. Fox when he presented at that time a petition, excluding all reference to annual or triennial parliaments: a petition expressed in the most general terms, and requiring nothing specific, purposely to avoid that diversity of sentiment which must necessarily take place before the subject had been calmly and properly discussed. Let the existing grievance be stated because all feel it, but leave the consideration of the remedy to parliament, in the confidence that parliament will do what justice requires.

As to the Corporation and Test Acts, we should be truly glad to see the portals of our church enlarged. "In my father's house," said Christ, "are many mansions:" in the church of Christ are many pews; and let the Catholics, the Baptists, the Calvinists, the Socinians, &c. &c. each have a pew in the national church, sacred, unmolested, without lett, hinderance, reproach, or civic disabilities of any sort or kind whatever. We are all wor-

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shippers of the same God through the same Mediator; let us worship, then, in the same national temple, and kneel down at the same altar. The father of the late Lord Ellenborough, Dr. Law, Bishop of Carlisle, was considered as an Unitarian, and his brother, Bishop of Elphin, had the rare liberality to send Dr. Priestley 100l., to enable him to publish one of his theological works. Newton and Locke were deemed Socinians; Lardner was an avowed one; Clarke and Whiston were declared Arians; Bull and Waterland were professed Athanasians; and "who," says Bishop Watson, "will take upon him to say, that these men were not equal to each other in probity and scriptural knowlege?" The author of the present pamphlet observes that the names of Clarke, Jortin, Shipley, Blackburne, Law, Watson, Hoadley, &c., shew that latitudinarian principles *in* the Church divest no man of honorary or pecuniary rewards; while similar principles *out* of the Church have such an effect, and beset him with all sorts of deprivations, although in the latter case much less danger is to be apprehended than in the former. What excellent sense is contained in these words of the memorable John Hales: "Were liturgies and public forms of service so framed as that they admitted not of particular and private fancies, but contained only such things as in which all Christians do agree, schisms on opinion were utterly banished. For consider of all the liturgies that are or ever have been, and remove from them whatsoever is scandalous to any party, and leave nothing but what all agree on; and the event shall be, that the public service and honour of God shall no way suffer. Whereas to load our public forms with the private fancies upon which we differ is the most sovereign way to perpetuate schism unto the world's end."

Were we to expunge from the liturgy of the Church of England all those "particular and private fancies," on which many very learned and conscientious Christians cannot agree, the Establishment, so far from being endangered, would receive an accession of strength by the union of many pious and powerful supporters; who see much solid good in having an establishment, but who cannot conscientiously assent to all the doctrines of that which exists.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 23. *The Progress of Human Life;* Shakspeare's Seven Ages of Man; illustrated by a Series of Extracts in Prose and Poetry. For the Use of Schools and Families: with a View to the Improvement of the rising Generation. By John Evans, A.M. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

This little volume displays elegant reading, and a regular familiarity with the genteel writers of the day: it quotes a multiplicity of agreeable though well-known passages, recommends the graceful virtues, and welcomes the exertions of talent: but, consisting almost entirely of select portions from the works of others, it wants the attraction of novelty of idea. It begins with a brief memoir of Shakspeare and his writings, condensed principally from the work

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work of Dr. Nathan Drake, lately examined by us at length. (Rev. vol. lxxxix. p. 357.) Shakspeare's minor poems record many particulars of his early years, with a frankness of which his biographers have been too generous to avail themselves: but it implies little penetration to complain of the want of information, when so much unused fact has been communicated from the first hand.

To this biographical memoir succeeds an Introduction, containing critical remarks on the general character of Shakspeare's writings, almost entirely extracted from Aikin, Young, and Addison. At length comes the proper subject of the book, the Seven Ages of Man.

I. *Infancy.* — Cowper, Green, Fawcett, Smithers, Downman, and some anonymous poets, supply a long bead-string of quotations, which eke out a meagre declamation on the nature and condition of childhood.

II. *The School-Boy.* — Shenstone, Cowper, Thomson, Gray, Southey, Knox, and others, here supply the illustrative passages.

III. *The Lover.* — Mr. Evans says that Shakspeare (p. 96.) has delineated the lover with inimitable fidelity. We should rather say that his delineation of the lover is ludicrous and ironical, and does not describe the *real* but the *mimic* lover, who is trying to affect love, — the poetical actor of the passion.

IV. *The Soldier.* — Pious aspirations for universal and perpetual peace decorate somewhat singularly this chapter.

V. *The Justice.* — De Lolme and Blackstone are here called in to supply panegyrics on the British constitution.

VI. *The Pantaloon.* — A long passage is here adduced in behalf of the utility of religion in old age, taken from the writings of Dr. Samuel Clarke; whom Mr. Evans calls the ornament of the times during which he lived.

VII. *Second Childishness.* — The propensity which old persons, whose faculties begin to decay, have to dwell on the scenes and ideas of their early years, to the total neglect and oblivion of more recent and more practically influential occurrences, has often been noticed but never explained. Is memory a mechanical record, executed on the surface of the brain; and are the same surfaces used repeatedly? The ideas recorded last seem to peel off first; as, in the case of an apartment which has been newly papered several times, when the walls are stripped, we first discover the immediately preceding, and by degrees the original pattern with which they were adorned.

This book may properly serve as a present to young persons, whom it will innocently amuse: but it contains so little original or peculiar matter, that we deem any extracts unnecessary.

Art. 24. *Letters from Mrs. Delany* (Widow of Dr. Patrick Delany) to Mrs. Frances Hamilton, from the Year 1779 to the Year 1788; comprizing many unpublished and interesting Anecdotes of their late Majesties and the Royal Family. Now first printed from the original MSS. Crown 8vo. 6s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1820.

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These letters are better calculated to display the kindness of their late Majesties, in their private and social intercourse, than to increase the respect which we are naturally disposed to entertain for the memory of the widow of the friend of Swift, the deviser of the paper Mosaics. After Dr. Delany's death, she became an inmate with the Duchess-Dowager of Portland, in whose residence she first met the notice of George III. and his consort; and in the present correspondence she gives an account of that introduction, together with some subsequent interviews; of the death of the Duchess; and of the truly benevolent establishment of Mrs. Delany by their Majesties in a house completely furnished at Windsor, with an allowance of 300l. a-year.

As a specimen of these letters, we extract the account of the return-visit made by the Duchess at Windsor, after having been honoured by a royal call at Bulstrode:

'On Wednesday (December, 1781,) the Duchess of Portland intended to go to return the Queen thanks for the honour she had done her: we were to set out early. I dressed my head for the day before breakfast, when a letter arrived from Miss Hamilton, from the Queen's lodge, to me, with a message from the King, to desire we would not come till Thursday evening, eight o'clock; as he could not be at home till then. Accordingly we went: were there at the appointed hour. The King and Queen and the Princesses received us in the drawing-room, to which we went through the concert-room. Princess Mary took me by the left hand, Princess Sophia and the sweet little Prince Octavius took me by the right hand, and led me after the Duchess of Portland into the drawing-room. The King nodded and smiled upon my little conductors, and bid them lead me up to the Queen, who stood in the middle of the room. When we were all seated, (for the Queen is so gracious she will always make me sit down,) the Duchess of Portland sat next to the Queen, and I sat next to Princess Royal. On the other side of me was a chair, and His Majesty did me the honour to sit by me. He went backwards and forwards between that and the music-room: he was so gracious as to have a good deal of conversation with me, particularly about Handel's music; and ordered those pieces to be played which he found I gave a preference to. In the course of the evening, the Queen changed places with Princess Royal, saying, most graciously, she must have a little conversation with Mrs. Delany, which lasted about half an hour. She then got up, it being half an hour after ten, and said she was afraid she should keep the Duchess of Portland too late, and made her courtesy, and we withdrew. There was nobody but their attendants, and Lord and Lady Courtown. Nothing could be more easy and agreeable.'

In another place, we learn that 'the lovely groupe (the Queen and Princesses) were all dressed in white muslin polonoises, white chip hats with white feathers: except the Queen, who had on a black hat and cloak:' at another time, they were dressed 'in an uniform for the *demi-saison*, of a violet blue armozine, gauze aprons, &c. &c. and the Queen had the addition of a great many pearls.'

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pearls.' On one occasion, the presence of the Hanoverian ambassador gave Mrs. D. an opportunity of hearing the Queen speak German; and she observes, 'I may say it was the first time I had received pleasure from what I did not understand; but there was *such a fluency and sweetness in her manner of speaking it that it sounded as gentle as Italian.*' — The King seems always to have deported himself towards Mrs. D. with that courtesy and affability which were natural to him, and with *real friendliness*, which is usually deemed rather a stranger at court. He more than once directed Handel's music to be played, and was graciously pleased to say that it was to gratify Mrs. D.; on which she remarks that these are flattering honours, and that she should not indulge so much on this subject but that she depends on her correspondent's considering it as proceeding more from gratitude than vanity.

On the whole, we feel desirous to believe that Mrs. D., in the topics and circumstantial details of which these letters are composed, accommodated herself to the taste and curiosity of her correspondent: but the public can receive no great edification from them; though they will be pleased with such an authentic delineation of the private life and kind feelings of our late sovereigns.

Art. 25. *Lacon:* or, Many Things in few Words; addressed to those who think. By the Rev. C. C. Colton, A. M. late Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 267. Longman and Co. 1820.

We have some doubts whether this "learned Lacedemonian" will accept as a compliment our opinion, that his book is admirably fitted for the sofa and the window-seat; — as many a printed plaything is, though not to be compared with the pithy pages here presented to us. It is addressed 'to those who think;' a very large circle in appearance, because such as have the lowest pretensions to be admitted within its periphery are the most eager to press forwards, and would feel disgrace at the exclusion which they are conscious of deserving. A little book of apophthegms and maxims, drawn from observations on real life, illustrated by a variety of anecdotes, and expressed in terse *laconic* language, is not only the result of thinking on the part of the composer, but furnishes at almost every page the materials for thinking, and still more the provocative, to many who are not much in the habit of it. They take it *up* from the table when they would not take it *down* from the shelf: they are not deterred from perusing it by any formidable array of chapters and sections; and they have no long process of reasoning or prolixity of argument to digest, which would nauseate them like a dose of physic. The fruit of another's knowlege drops, as it were, ripe into their mouths as they lie under the tree: the flavour is agreeable and the juice refreshing; and they are tempted afterward to take the trouble of gathering it for themselves. Mr. Colton, therefore, must not think that we are depreciating the merits of his work in recommending it for the drawing-room, as well as the library. — It is impossible to describe the contents of such a book as this: but we may dip, blindfold, and take a specimen or two:

'That

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'That writer who aspires to immortality, should imitate the sculptor, if he would make the labours of the pen as durable as those of the chissel. Like the sculptor, he should arrive at ultimate perfection, not by what he *adds*, but by what he *takes away*; otherwise all his energy may be hidden in the superabundant mass of his matter, as the finished form of an Apollo, in the unworked solidity of the block. A friend called on Michael Angelo, who was finishing a statue; some time afterwards he called again; the sculptor was still at his work; his friend looking at the figure exclaimed, you have been idle since I saw you last; by no means, replied the sculptor, I have retouched this part, and polished that; I have softened this feature, and brought out this muscle; I have given more expression to this lip, and more energy to this limb: Well, well, said his friend, but all these are trifles; it may be so, replied Angelo, but recollect that trifles make perfection, and that perfection is no trifle.'—

'Society, like a shaded silk, must be viewed in all situations, or its colours will deceive us. Goldsmith observed, that one man who travels through Europe on foot, and who, like Scriblerus, makes his legs his compasses, and another who is whisked through it in a chaise and four, will form very different conclusions at the end of their journey. The philosopher, therefore, will draw his estimate of human nature, by varying as much as possible his own situation, to multiply the points of view under which he observes her. Uncircumscribed by lines of latitude or of longitude, he will examine her "buttoned up and laced in the forms and ceremonies of civilization, and at her ease, and unrestrained in the light and feathered costume of the savage." He will also associate with the highest, without servility, and with the lowest, without vulgarity. In short, in the grand theatre of human life, he will visit the pit and the gallery, as well as the boxes, but he will not inform the boxes that he comes amongst them from the pit, nor the pit that he visits them from the gallery.'—

'Time is the most undefinable yet paradoxical of things; the past is gone, the future is not come, and the present becomes the past, even while we attempt to define it, and like the flash of the lightning, at once exists and expires.—Time is the measurer of all things, but is itself immeasurable, and the grand discloser of all things, but is itself undisclosed. Like space, it is incomprehensible, because it has no limit, and it would be still more so, if it had. It is more obscure in its source than the Nile, and in its termination than the Niger; and advances like the slowest tide, but retreats like the swiftest torrent. It gives wings of lightning to pleasure, but feet of lead to pain, and lends expectation a curb, but enjoyment a spur. It robs Beauty of her charms, to bestow them on her picture, and builds a monument to merit, but denies it a house; it is the transient and deceitful flatterer of falsehood, but the tried and final friend of truth. Time is the most subtle yet the most insatiable of depredators, and by appearing to take nothing, is permitted to take all, nor can it be satisfied, until it has stolen the world from us, and us from the world.'

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world. It constantly flies, yet overcomes all things by flight, and although it is the present ally, it will be the future conqueror of death. Time, the cradle of hope, but the grave of ambition, is the stern corrector of fools, but the salutary counsellor of the wise, bringing all they dread to the one, and all they desire to the other; but like Cassandra, it warns us with a voice that even the sagest discredit too long, and the silliest believe too late. Wisdom walks before it, opportunity with it, and repentance behind it; he that has made it his friend will have little to fear from his enemies, but he that has made it his enemy, will have little to hope from his friends.'

Art. 26. *An Inquiry into some of the most curious and interesting Subjects of History, Antiquity, and Science;* with an Appendix, containing the earliest Information of the most remarkable Cities of ancient and modern Times. By Thomas Moir, Member of the College of Justice, Edinburgh. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Lackington and Co.

A pedantic and superstitious book may nevertheless contain recondite information, curious disquisition, and far-fetched knowlege: it may also include tedious micrology and frivolous investigation; and accordingly as this book before us is appreciated by the one or the other of its many chapters, it may appear liable to these several characters: 1. First comes an account of the Abbeys in England before the Reformation. 2. An Account of the Calendar. 3. History of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. 4. Institution of Academical Degrees. The author says that they began at Paris in the 12th century: but they were not unknown to the antient world; the degrees of scribe and rabbi being conferred at the Serapeum of Alexandria, and in other Jewish universities. Probably the university of Salerno, while that place was a fief of the Greek empire, introduced into Europe this practice of antiquity. 5. Account of the Destruction of the Serapeum. This is an imperfect article. 6. Some Observations on Burying-places. 7. Continuation of the second Chapter concerning the Calendar. 8, 9, and 10. Continuations of the first Chapter concerning the Abbeys. 11. Of Domesday-book. 12. Origin of Parliament. 13. On Edgar Atheling's Right to the Crown of England. 14. On hasty Burial. 15. The Existence of evil Spirits defended. This is a chapter deeply tinctured with credulity. The author seems not aware of the unalterable distinction between exterior realities and interior realities; between those objects, the existence of which can be ascertained by comparing them with the archetypes of nature, and those of which the existence can be ascertained only by the authority of other minds, from the contemplation of which, and not from the contemplation of nature, we may have learned to imagine such objects. These intellectual phantasms, were they common to a million of minds, would still be of doubtful external reality: for only that can be *known to be*, which is capable of becoming an object of sense. When a poet depicts his magical creations, he may call up in our minds

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minds vivid pictures of the objects described: but these objects are still known to us only by *intuition*, only by looking into other minds for the prototypes: they are not known to us by sensation; and we are therefore not intitled to affirm their existence in any other than an ideal form; that is, we are not intitled to affirm their exterior reality. Evil spirits certainly belong to this class of ideas of intuition; and Mr. Moir is not warranted to predicate concerning them, as he does, that the existence of evil spirits is manifest from *experience*. 16. Of the Great Seal of England. 17. Origin of the Title of Sheriff. The author says that *reeve* among the English Saxons was a steward, and he considers sheriff as a contraction of *shire-reeve*. The Saxon word, however, is *gerefa*, and is collateral with the German *graff* (Count), which occurs in the English word *Margrave*. In Chaucer's time, this *gerefa* may have been abbreviated into *reve*, as indeed Spelman and Junius think, but it had not acquired that form in the Saxon times. 18. Account of the Sicilian Vespers. This chapter we shall extract, to manifest how permanent are the traits of national character, and how similar are the remedies to which a given people resort in difficulties of a like kind.

'Frederic II., Emperor of Germany, having died at Naples in December, 1249, after a reign of forty years, left Conrad, his eldest son, the kingdoms of Naples, Jerusalem, and Lombardy; to Henry, his second son, Sicily; and to Frederic, his third son, Austria; to Entius, a natural son, the kingdom of Sardinia; and to Manfred, or Manfroy, another natural son, the principality of Tarento. William II., Count of Holland, a prince endowed with great virtues, and this Conrad, surnamed the Fourth, were competitors for the empire. The former was drowned in Frizeland in 1256, and Richard, Duke of Cornwall, brother to Henry III., King of England, was chosen in his place. He was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle; but, thinking the expence and difficulties too great, returned to England, and died there in 1271. Conrad IV. died at Naples in 1254, after he had reigned but four years, leaving a young son Conradin, who was educated by his mother in Suabia. The wicked prince Manfred, who is said by some to have poisoned both his brother Conrad IV., and his father, Frederic III., usurped the regency of Naples and Sicily for his nephew Conradin, and soon after, pretending he was dead in Germany, took the title of King. Pope Urban IV. alleging that Frederic II. and Conrad IV. had, by refusing homage, forfeited that kingdom, which was a fief of the holy See, and that Manfred was an usurper, made a present of it to Charles, Duke of Anjou and Provence. That prince, who was a good man, like his brother, but ambitious, through incredible difficulties made himself master of all that kingdom on this side of the Pharos of Messina, and defeated and slew Manfred near Benevento in 1266. Also almost all the towns in the island of Sicily recognised him by their deputies; and when Conradin and his brother came out of Germany with an army to challenge that kingdom, Charles, after some losses, discomfited them, took them prisoners, and caused them to be

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be put to death, in 1268. Peter, King of Arragon, who had married Constantina, Manfred's daughter, occasioned afterwards great revolutions in Sicily. The inhabitants, in revenge for the death of Conradin, and provoked by severe usage, formed a conspiracy, and at the time of *Evening Song*, on Easter-day, in 1281, cut the throats of all the Frenchmen in the island, which massacre has been since called the Sicilian Vespers. In 1283, King Charles had the affliction to see his son made prisoner by the Admiral of Arragon.

By the death of Conradin, and his brother Frederic, Duke of Austria, who were both beheaded together at Naples, the house of Suabia became extinct. But the house of Austria soon succeeded it in power; for Rodolph, Count of Hapsburgh, after the death of Richard, Duke of Cornwall, and a short inter-regnum, was chosen Emperor in 1273; and being a good, wise, and valiant prince, retrieved the empire, which he found plunged in the utmost confusion and disorder. Ottocar, King of Bohemia, had seized on Austria, Styria, Carnolia, and Carinthia; but Rodolph, who had married Ann, the heiress of Suabia, conquered them, and invested his son Albert with the duchy of Austria, and Rodolph, another son, with the county of Suabia. Albert was afterwards Emperor, and his posterity took their title from Austria, as a more illustrious principality than that of Hapsburgh.'

The nineteenth chapter treats of the Origin of Surgery. 20. Roman Tyrannicides. 21. Origin of Writing. 22. Manner of teaching about 1250. 23. On the Cross seen by Constantine. This was clearly an internal apparition, a vivid picture of his fancy; no one saw it but himself. 24. On Lammas-Day, which is abbreviated from loaf-mass. 25. On Architecture. 26. On the Mariner's Compass. It may have been brought into the north after the crusade of 1248, but it was known in the Indian seas long before. 27. Against Dancing. 28. On the Orders of the Hierarchy. The author seems inclined to revive the title of Patriarch. 29. Celibacy of the Clergy. 30. Antient Practice of medicine. 31. Celebration of Michaelmas. 32. Ordeal and Single Combat. 33. On Titles. 34. On the Catacombs. 35. Subject of Burial continued. 36. Origin of Romance. 37. On Sleep. 38. Military Titles. 39. On Visits, and Cards. 40. On the Gamut. 41. On Fare-coaches. 42. On the Utility of Latin and Greek. 43. On Miles.

Such are the author's topics, and his observations are more often transcribed than original. An Appendix supplies some local deficiencies. Many separate papers might with advantage have been united or condensed into one: they consist too generally of detached fragments.

Art. 27. *Observations introductory to a Work on English Etymology.* By John Thomson, M. A. S. and late Private Secretary to the Marquis of Hastings, Governor-General of India. 2d Edition. 4to. sewed. Murray.

The first edition of this erudite treatise was noticed in our Number

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Number for April last. It here appears considerably enlarged, but remains liable to the objection which we before intimated, that no very distinct view is taken by the author of the several languages which have contributed to form the English tongue; and that the epithets Celtic, Gothic, and the like, are employed with vague and versatile confusion. Schloetzer's *Nordische Geschichte* includes the best classification of the stem-tribes of Europe; and Adelung's *Mithridates* extends to all regions of the world the principle there adopted of arranging nations by their dialects. An intimate acquaintance with these radical authorities is requisite to write with precision concerning our own and other languages.

At p. 4. Mr. Thomson talks of the Hellenic and Latin as dialects of the Celtic language: but this idea we regard as indefensible. No resemblance subsists between the main basis of radical words, or the grammatical constructions and inflections, in the Greek and in the Erse. The name *Gaul*, *Gael*, or *Celt*, belongs to the earliest wave of population which entered Europe from Asia across the isthmus, north of the Euxine; and hence the remains of these Gauls or Celts are found at the north-west extremity of Europe. — Next followed the Welsh or Cimbric wave of population. The Greeks spelled the word *Welsh* into Pelasgic, and the Latins into Belgic; and wherever these tribes finally settled, they have preserved a language considerably different from any of the Celtic dialects, as in Armorica and Wales. — The third wave of population consisted of Goths; and these are every where situated to the east of the Cimbric, as the Cimbric are to the east of the Gaelic nations. — A fourth wave was the Slavonic. — The progress of all these tribes has been westward, trending to the north, because they found the southern countries more or less occupied by the Phœnician waves of population, which came into Europe by sea, or round the Mediterranean along the African coast.

When the present author says that the Welsh spoke a Celtic dialect, and when Mr. Pinkerton says that the Belgæ spoke a Gothic dialect, they wage war with all the remaining evidence of the terms still in use among the descendants of these nations. The Basque language, again, which Mr. Thomson classes as Celtic, is so certainly of a distinct and southern family of languages, that the word *elephant* is significant in Basque, and means great cattle. Of the Carthaginian colonists of Spain these people are probably a remnant.

To the preface, of which we have already said enough, succeeds a specimen from a collection of etymons, which is arranged in the form of a dictionary. The letter *M* has been selected; and from the midst of the words so commencing, we shall transcribe a column, in order to exhibit in the very terms of the author his elaborate plan of dictionary-making.

" MIDGE, *s.* A gnat, a fly. P. *mije*, Sans. *mukkhee*, μυια, L. *musca*, D. *myg*, S. *myge*, B. *mug*, Swed. *mygg*, T. *mucke*, F. *mouche*, Sp. *moschett.*

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'MIDRIFF, *s.* The diaphragm. G. *midrif*, S. *medhrife*; from *mid*, and *krife*, a wrapper.

'MIDWIFE, *s.* A person who delivers women. G. *mit*, D. *mid*, for *vit*, knowledge, wisdom, corresponding with F. *sage femme*, and Scotch *cannie wife*. G. *met*, signifies skill, art; but D. *maia*, is the Greek name for a midwife.

'MIEN, *s.* Countenance, look, air, manner. G. *mynd*, Swed. *mynd*, *mine*, D. *mine*, F. *mine*, Isl. *mena*; see MUNS, MOUTH, and MINE.

'MIGHT, *pret.* Of May.

'MIGHT, *s.* Power, force, G. *maht*, *magt*, S. *maght*, D. *magt*, Swed. *makt*, from G. *meiga*, to have power; see MAY.

'MILD, *a.* Gentle, soft, lenitive. G. *mild*, Swed. *milder*, S. *mild*, T. *mild*.

'MILDEW, *s.* Blight, a disease in plants, mouldiness. L. *melligo*, a kind of sweetish gum produced on plants by defective vegetation, has been confounded in English with meal and mould. S. *mildeaw*, D. *meeldug*, T. *mehlthau*, *miltaw*, dusty dew, or moisture.

'MILE, *s.* A measure, of 1760 yards; but with the Romans 1000 paces. F. *mile*, It. *miglio*, from L. *mille*, a thousand.

'MILK, *s.* A white nutricious fluid by which females nourish their young. Μέλκα, G. *miolk*, Swed. *mjeolk*, D. *melk*, T. *milch*, B. *melk*, S. *milc*, I. *meilg*.

'MILL, *s.* A machine for grinding. Μύλη, L. *mola*, D. *mœlle*, T. *mühhle*, S. *myln*, Arm. *meill*, W. *melen*, I. *muilion*, F. *moulin*, from G. *mala*, L. *molo*, to grind; see MEAL.

'MILLET, *s.* A plant and its seed. A. *mileb*, F. *millet*, It. *miglio*.'

We may here observe that MIDWIFE is incorrectly derived; it comes from the German *miet*, hire, and *weib*, woman; — a female who goes out to nurse for hire.

MIEN is properly derived from the French *mine*: but, in this case, it cannot also have come to us from the Icelanders, whose *mena* is of a different family and signification.

MILDEW is *meal-dew*, as the collateral German word *mehl-thau* demonstrates: but it has nothing to do with the Latin *melligo*, which is here unfitly adduced as a cognate term.

Under the head MILL, on the contrary, although the Gothic dialects supply cognate terms, it was proper to adduce the Greek and Latin roots, because the invention was communicated to the northern nations by the Romans, and the word is truly of southern origin and descent.

This specimen of an etymological dictionary certainly displays great and even superfluous learning, hardly less various than that of Mr. Whiter: but it does not always select judiciously the real root, which can have come only from one quarter. Historical investigation of the older forms of a word is often necessary to ascertain this point satisfactorily. Thus the word *mangle*, when it means to lacerate, is the frequentative of the Saxon *mankan*, to strike

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strike down; and, when it means a cylinder for smoothing linen, it is derived from W. *mangul*, the name of a military engine.

The present author reasons as if he thought that certain mother-tongues first overspred large provinces, and that *daughter-dialects* sprang from them, as the Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese have descended from the Latin. This may be true of imperial languages, when an empire dissolves: but in rude and savage countries, — and it is in such that the English tongue had its birth, — language is confluent, not diffluent. Every family begins by having a separate vocabulary. The children of several families meet, and in a few years the village has their useful words in common. Military combination afterward brings the nomenclature of each village into the national stock, and thus a single language becomes common to a great district. In New Holland, in Africa, and in South America, wherever little intercourse prevails, each cottage has a separate language, the instinctive invention of the mother and her children.

Art. 28. *Popular Voyages and Travels throughout the Continent and Islands of Europe:* in which the Geography, Character, Customs, and Manners of Nations are described; and the Phenomena of Nature most worthy of Observation are illustrated on scientific Principles. By Mrs. Jamieson (late Miss Thurtle), Author of "Ashford Rectory," "A History of France," &c. Embellished with Engravings. 12mo. 9s. sewed. Whittakers. 1820.

Art. 29. *Popular Voyages and Travels throughout the Continents and Islands of Asia, Africa, and America.* Embellished with Engravings. By Mrs. Jamieson. 12mo. 9s. sewed. Whittakers. 1820.

These two volumes, which are published separately, contain a fund of interesting information collected from approved sources, and very pleasantly detailed. We cordially recommend them, particularly to the perusal of young people.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The former note of *J. P. L.* was never received; and we regret that the absence of some of our coadjutors, at this time, prevents us from now giving an answer to a request so modestly urged, and for a purpose apparently so laudable.

The letter from Woodbridge, dated Dec. 12., is received.

In the last Review, p. 272. l. 16., *dele* the word 'one' at the commencement of the quotation from Mr. Barton's 'Dream,' a poem.

☞ The APPENDIX to this Volume of the Review will be published with the Number for January, on the 1st of February.

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THE APPENDIX

TO THE

NINETY-THIRD VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW, ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Das Heldenbuch von Iran*, &c.; *i. e.* The Hero-Book of Iran, from the Shah-nameh of Ferdoosi. Translated by J. GOERRES. 2 Vols. 8vo. Berlin. 1820. Imported by Bohte, York Street, Covent Garden.

IN the year 916 of the Christian æra, was born at Sar, near Tus, the capital of Khorasan, the author of the Shah-nameh, Abul Cassem Mansoor Ferdoosi. His father was gardener at the villa of a nobleman; and, as this pleasant spot was called Ferdoos or Paradise, he named his son after it. The poet Assadi distinguished early the genius of the boy, gave him instructions, and recommended him to the patronage of Mahmoud Mashook, the high-priest of Tus; to whom he read specimens of his rhymed chronicle of Persia, which were much admired, and were recited by the youth in the presence of Abu Mansoor Afsagien, the governor of Tus.

Ferdoosi has sung the praise of this governor, and owed to him an important introduction to Mahmood, the Sultan at Ghasny; among whose courtiers Mahik was peculiarly the friend of the poet, and procured for him a sort of pension, on which he subsisted while engaged in the completion of his long epopea. Various books from the royal library were presented to him, respecting the antient history of the country; among them were some writings of the Guebres, which he

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studied so assiduously as to incur a suspicion of heresy; and the Sultan threatened to have the bard trampled under foot by elephants. Explanations, however, took place, and it was perceived that Ferdoosi had only versified certain traditions of the Giaours, on account of their marvellous and poetic character, without wishing to make this mythology pass for truth. He therefore obtained pardon; and, after having recited at court some additional sections of his poem, he returned to his retreat with increased emoluments. He lost at the age of thirty-seven an only son, whom he bewails.

The Shah-nameh is said to have been completed in the year 985 of the Christian æra, and in the sixty-ninth of the author's age; and the Sultan ordered a dinar for every line to be given to the poet, the whole number of lines being one hundred and twenty thousand. It has been related that the Vizier having paid silver dinars, the prince ordered the amount to be fully discharged in golden dinars: but such computations, we imagine, must describe the sum of his pensions, rather than a single donation. Ferdoosi now returned to his native place, lost his sight, hired a boy to read to him, and was affectionately attended and nursed by a single daughter; who continued resident with him until his death, which is said not to have happened before the year 1020, at the very advanced age of one hundred and four. Twenty-seven years after his decease, the then reigning Sultan ordered a mausoleum in honour of his memory to be erected in the garden in which he had been buried; and perhaps the date of this edifice has been mistaken for that of Ferdoosi's death.

In one of his poems, he alludes to a visit which he made at Bagdad to a merchant of his acquaintance; and such was then his celebrity, that the Vizier offered him an apartment in the palace, and presented him to the Caliph, who dismissed him with presents. The daughter of Ferdoosi, who appears to have inherited a liberal property, built at her own expence a stone stair-case, or staithe, on the bank of the river at Tus, which her father had projected for the accommodation of his fellow-citizens. Her very independence, however, has a character more analogous to Parsee than to Moslem manners; and, as Abul Cassim, the high-priest at Tus, is stated in the first instance to have refused to read the usual prayers over the poet's grave, it is not unlikely that his external conformity to Mohammedism was confined to the period of his residence at court. His poems are, moreover, quoted in the Zend-Avesta, a sacred book of the Guebres; and they were translated into Arabic by Kyamedeen Fitthe Aboo Ali Il Hendi, at the command of Sultan Æly Adihim Eesvy.

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The two volumes before us contain a verbal German version of the Shah-nameh into prose; to which has been prefixed by the translator, Professor GOERRES, an introductory comment, partly literary and partly geographical: with a map of Persia, containing especially the rivers, cities, and mountains mentioned in the poem. In the preliminary dissertation, which is written in a very metaphorical and mystical style, it is observed that Ferdoosi, in order to render the history of ages susceptible of epic narration, has imagined the singular plan of personifying entire dynasties of princes as individuals, and condensing the events of a whole war into the form of a single combat. An attempt is made to explain these allegories, and to translate back into historic fact the strange machinery: but, however ingenious it may be to transmute a dragon into an army, and from its partial wounds to infer the degree of defeat, yet we have no sufficient basis for confidence in this system of exposition. The Apocalypse has been supposed to relate the siege of Babylon by Avidius Cassius, and it is with similar deciphering that Professor GOERRES turns into real events the centennial reigns of the princes of Ferdoosi: but, as the corroborative testimony of annalists is in this case wanting to vouch for the inferred events, they cannot satisfactorily be assumed on the evidence of so hazardous an interpretation. This theory, however, may have the good effect of teaching some European poet how to involve great masses of event in a single epic poem, and may thus create the very art which it imputes.

In the year 1788, Mr. Champion published a rhymed English translation of the first eight books of the Shah-nameh, which he inscribed to Sir William Jones. * These eight books are here divided into shorter sections, called sagas, by the German translator, and are comprehended in his first volume: while the second contains that portion of the work which Mr. Champion did not live to complete, and of which a version remains a desideratum in English literature. An idea may best be formed of the relative character and value of these two translations by quoting from each the same legend; and we shall select that of Zohak, because it is a good allegorical personification of the military tyrant, and is one of those passages in which many literary controversies have been mooted. We give first the rhymes of Mr. Champion.

* See Rev. vol. ii. N. S. p. 369. At this distance of time and on this occasion, we may be pardoned for a little recapitulation, and repetition, concerning both Ferdoosi, and Mr. Champion.

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" The pious Merdaz in Arabia reigns,
With numerous herds that grace his fruitful plains.
Zohak, his son, ten thousand horse commands;
Brave in the fields, he leads his victor bands
In Deri Poorasp: for, by night and day,
Benevolence his generous acts display.
In semblance of a sage, one morning came
The infernal Eblis, ever damn'd to fame;
So wise and so mellifluent was his tongue,
Ill-fated Zohak on his speeches hung;
Unconscious of deceit, so deeply laid,
All his whole soul to Eblis was display'd.
When this the infernal saw, invidious joy
Cheer'd his dark thoughts, ambitious to destroy.
He tun'd his language to melodious strains,
And pour'd his poison into Zohak's veins.
'Twas then he spoke: ' My sciences exceed
All that man knows, or all the sages read.'
The youth, impatient, urg'd him to impart
His letter'd knowlege, and superior art.
With artifice the horrid fiend replied,
' By solemn oath first take me for your guide;
Swear that, attentive to my great design,
Whate'er I say, whatever I enjoin,
You will obey. My knowlege I will teach,
And lead you far beyond all mortal reach!'
The unwary Zohak swore: deluded youth!
To whom unconscious do you pledge your truth?
He swore that silence should the tale conceal.
'Twas then that Eblis broke the fatal seal:
' A son like you, with every talent blest,
With godlike virtues, in unwarlike rest,
Thus doom'd, depriv'd of empire and of power,
To wait, inactive, for an old man's hour,
Argues a grovelling soul. While thy old sire
Lives glimmering on, supprest thy active fire,
Long will he rule: a slave thou must remain.
Seize on his sceptre, and assert thy reign.
His throne is thine: obedient to thy guide,
The world will own thee with a conscious pride.'
Zohak attentive heard; ambition, power,
Raged in his soul, and mark'd the chosen hour.
A spark of virtue struggled in his heart, —
' Adopt some mode where nature will not start.'
Eblis with sternness answer'd, ' Take his seat,
Or perjury is thine shouldst thou retreat.
For perjury, will piety atone?
Thus, thus, ejected from a splendid throne,
For ages will your sire in triumph reign,
And thou, inglorious, curse this pious strain.'
Alarm'd, the youth assents, no fears appal.
' But how, or where? the king's belov'd by all.'

' Be

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'Be silent only, and the means are mine;
Great shalt thou be, and like yon sun shalt shine.'
"A well was sunk, and covered in the night;
A level plain it seem'd to mortal sight.
Merdaz each eve within the garden roves,
And bow'd before his God in sacred groves.
There lay the snare, alas! design'd by hell;
In it at eve the pious monarch fell,
Fearless of ill. For lions, though they rage,
Submissive wait upon a parent's age.
Zohak, whose soul was in the infernal's power,
No fear or sorrow knew. 'Let the fates lower;
The throne is mine.' So antient annals tell;
And Eblis smil'd to view the force of hell.
"The infernal now a beauteous shape assum'd,
And words more gracious all his thoughts illum'd.
Each power was granted him; till then the earth
Yielded all food, and simple was its mirth.
No luxury it knew; the fowl, the sheep,
With various birds, fish from the watery deep,
Were drest by Eblis for the wondering king.
The winter, summer, autumn, and the spring,
Were ransack'd all to catch the inglorious mind,
Whose senses were to luxury resign'd.
Zohak from Eblis, wondering, seeks to know
Whence such new knowlege, such improvements, flow.
Whether of mortal, or immortal race?
'Say what rewards can such achievements grace.'
To whom: 'Oh monarch of Arabia's plain,
My schemes, my labours, shall not prove in vain.
Your kindness warms the slave of your desire;
One sole request I crave, one only boon require,
On thy immortal shoulders let me place
My faithful head, and bow my bending face.'
Zohak, not conscious of impending ill,
Bids him his wishes and his boon fulfil.
Eblis the moment seiz'd with proud delight,
Touch'd either arm, and vanish'd from his sight.
Instant two serpents sprung from either arm;
All gaze, all wonder, trembling with alarm.
Erect they rose, and all around them view'd:
Their open mouths demand immediate food.
All skill'd in medicine try their art in vain;
All herbs prove fruitless to relieve the pain.
"Eblis, in habit of a seer, unknown,
Appear'd, and thus addrest the royal throne:
'With brains of men alone these serpents feed,
For this no herb, no medicine, is decreed:
This will destroy them.' Hell could do no more.
The infernal revell'd, pleas'd with human gore."

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Professor GOERRES incorporates this story of Zohak in his fifth saga, or legend, and thus delivers it:

'At this time, there was a man among those who wield the lance on horseback, excellent, good and pious, just, benevolent and noble. He was called Erwendab, possessed milch-kine in thousands, camels, sheep, and Thasian horses. A son was born to this righteous man, whom he loved not a little, and whose name was Zohak. He was courageous, but headlong and impure; and he was called Purasi, because Pura signifies *number* in Pehlivi, and *ten thousand* in Deri; for of Thasian horses with golden bits he had more than the name expresses. He had not quitted the path of faith, when a devil came to him one morning; to whom the youth lent a willing ear, and gave up his heart, his understanding, and his purity of soul: at which the Devil rejoiced, and offered him fair words, and seduced him. "I will tell you things," said he, "which nobody knows."—"Tell them," replied the young man, "and be my teacher in good advice."—The other replied: "First I must make a covenant with you." The youth did as he was bidden, and swore never to betray his secret. Then the Devil began: "Beside thyself there is no one in the house. Of what use is the old man! Why a father over a son at your age? He is failing, and you are in the vigour of life; remove him from the throne; his dignity would become you better. If you will heed me, I will make you bashaw over the whole earth."—Zohak had pity for the blood of his father, and said: "That is unseemly, propose something else." The Devil replied: "If you will not follow my counsels, you still cannot break your covenant, and dissolve your oath. Remain, if you like, in your present subserviency, and leave your father in his pomp and state."—Thus he tempted the soul of the Thasian to swim into his net, and ask: "But by what means, and under what pretence?"—He went on: "I will exalt thy head above the sun; only be silent, help I do not want."

The bashaw had fitted up a beautiful garden for prayer: every morning early he went into it, there purified his body and soul in secret, and a servant handed him a torch. In the path the Devil dug a deep hole, and covered its mouth with twigs. When the shah of Thasi came by night this way, the servant of God fell in, and broke his back. Thus the abandoned Zohak stepped into the place of his father, and put the crown of the Thasians on his head. But the dæmon thought of new devices, and said: "If thou adorest me, every wish in the world will be granted thee; if thou dost nothing without my consent, thou wilt become bashaw of the whole world; beasts, men, birds, and fishes will obey thee." Then he changed himself into a graceful youth, eloquent and alert, and came to Zohak, saluted him respectfully, and said; "If I can be welcome to the Shah, he will find me a cook skilful in his art." Zohak engaged him on this speech, and gave him the key of his kitchen. At that time meats were not very various, and the mode of nourishment was rude: but he prepared dishes of all sorts of flesh of quadrupeds and birds, and fed Zohak with blood,

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blood, like a lion, that he might gain courage to follow his advice. First he gave prepared yolks of eggs, and Zohak ate and was delighted. In the following night, the cunning one thought of devices, and when at dawn the sun entered the blue vault, and strewed gold and rubies around, he dressed partridges and pheasants for his table. On the third day, he provided fowls and lamb; on the fourth, roasted veal sprinkled with saffron and rose-water; and during the whole year Zohak drank wine perfumed with musk.

'Much joy had the impure Zohak in this man, and he said once to him: "Tell me thy wish, that I may bring it to bear." The cook answered: "Mayest thou ever be glad, and remain my lord and master: my heart is full of love to thee, and my soul clings to the King: allow me this one thing, to kiss thine eyes and thy face." Zohak heard the speech, but guessed not the secret of the tempter's heart. "I grant thee thy wish," he said, and permitted the Devil to embrace him, and to print a kiss on his shoulders. Immediately two black serpents grew out from the places which he had kissed. Then Zohak became troubled in his heart, and sought for every means of cure in vain. His bosom was filled with hatred, and his head with discord. At length, he resolved to cut off the snakes, and was glad when he accomplished it: but, like branches of trees, they sprouted again, and craved. Physicians and surgeons met and consulted, and tried every method without avail. At last came the Devil in the form of a physician, and said: "It is possible to make thee well: feed thy serpents, and let them alone: that is the only way: but offer to them brains of men, all other food they will reject."

'By this perfidious advice, the Devil hoped to thin the earth of its inhabitants.'

The poet then passes on to the history of Jemshid. Now from this specimen it is obvious that Professor Goerres understands the Persian text better than Mr. Champion did: who, in the first six lines, mistakes Deri Poorasp for a province; whereas Deri is the name of a living language, and Poorasp a word quoted in it. In the same sentence, the poet also tells us that Pehlivi is a living language, and quotes a word in it: this is wholly dropped by Mr. Champion; yet the archæological information, that Pehlivi was spoken in Ferdoosi's time and neighbourhood, is an important fact towards dating the Zend-Avesta, which is composed in that now extinct tongue. By giving the name Eblis to the Devil, or *div*, who tempts Zohak, Mr. Champion has committed an anachronism and a breach of costume; Eblis is the Mohammedan devil, and was not an ideal being extant in the time of Zohak. In the seventh section of the Zend-Avesta, this story of Zohak and his serpents is mentioned; and consequently the author of that work had seen this early portion of the Shah-nameh:

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but, in the twenty-eighth saga of the Shah-nameh, Ferdoosi mentions the Zend-Avesta as already extant, and as having emanated from the fire-temple at Kend, in the time of Feridun. It should seem, therefore, that the author of the Zend-Avesta was absolutely contemporary with Ferdoosi, had read his early poems, and had been perused at a latter period by the poet; who plays, however, into the hands of the priest, and treats his work as of acknowleged antiquity. This is nearly a demonstration that Ferdoosi was at heart a sectary of the Zend-Avesta, a secret Guebre, and fire-worshipper.

Perhaps it is not quite certain that the entire Shah-nameh was written by one hand. The first six sagas have a simplicity and an energy of style not unlike those of Dante, but abound with flat vulgar unornamented passages, and with occasional flashes of bombast. On the contrary, with the seventh saga, or soon afterward, begins a more polished and cultivated style, easy, graceful, copious, and equal; which announces, if not greater genius, more education and habit of composition. It has been recorded of the poet Assadi that he completed the Shah-nameh: but this is inconsistent with chronology, for he was the older of the two poets, and the patron of Ferdoosi's youth. We suspect, therefore, that Assadi began the Shah-nameh, wrote the first six cantos, and trained Ferdoosi to become his continuator; as Ariosto continued Boiardo. — In order that the reader may be able to compare this progressive refinement of the diction in the Shah-nameh, we shall translate verbally a section from the second volume, which appears to us composed by a less rude and more accomplished genius than the author of the story of Zohak.

'XIX. *The Saga of Sijavesh and Seudabeh.*

'The Mobed relates to us another antient tradition. Once, while Thus and Kiv were hunting on the borders of Turan, they found in a wood a maiden, who had fled from her father's house because in his cups he had threatened to ill use her. Both became inflamed with love for the beautiful girl, and quarrelled for the possession of her. As they could not come to terms, they agreed to take the maid before Kai Khaus, and that he should settle the dispute by allotting her to the one or to the other: — but, when Khaus beheld the beauty of the woman, he also at first sight became violently in love, and inquired into her descent.

'"On my mother's side," said she, "I am of a sovereign family, and my father is of the race of Feridun. My grandfather was the Sipehdar of Kersives, where my father encamps, who is lord of Bulger." When he had heard her speech, Khaus took her away from both, and sent her into his own harem. After nine months she bore him a son, lovely as a Peri, whose name was called Sijavesh. When he came to a proper age, Rusthem begged

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begged him of his father, and brought him up in Sabulistan, and taught him chivalry; how to handle the bow and the noose; how to hunt and to encamp; and how to award right and wrong, and to practise wisdom and virtue. He became strong and clever: the elephant and the leopard withstood him not in strife.

'When he was grown up, Sijavesh begged of Rusthem to take him back to his father. Rusthem armed him splendidly for the journey, and accompanied him to the court of Kai Khaus. The Shah sent Kiv and Thus with a guard of honour to receive the guests. Sijavesh, when he came to court, greeted with awe his father on the throne; and the King was pleased with his figure, his manners, and his skill, and thanked God that he had such a son. He then prepared a magnificent repast, and publicly made rich presents to the youth. For seven years, he tried him, and found him faithful; in the eighth he gave him a girdle and a throne, and the land of Khursan; and, after the old guise, he caused the donation to be recorded on silk, that he might have a home of his own, and enjoy the chase and the fight.

'It happened that Seudabeh, his father's wife, once unexpectedly beheld him. Her soul became thoughtful at sight of the youth, and her heart was moved; and she sent to him, and invited him to come for a time into the harem, that the moon-cheeked might rejoice in the light of his countenance. He declined the invitation: but she spoke to the King, and persuaded him to bring his son into the harem, that his sisters might have the pleasure of seeing him. He became pensive at this, and thought that his father wanted to try him, and answered: "Send me rather to the Mobeds, or to the nobles, or to the captains, that I may learn what is yet wanting to be learned by a sovereign; what have I to do with your women?" The father approved his sentiments, but explained to him the simplicity of his own intentions, whereupon Sijavesh went into the apartment of the females.

'Here he found a paradise of lustre and magnificence, perfumes, dainties, and fine furniture. On an ivory stool sat Seudabeh, bright as the star Suheil, with a crown of jewels on her head, and her locks curling to the ground. She came down when she beheld the youth, and embraced him long and closely, and kissed him much. And he was sensible to her love. The sisters also saluted him, and placed him on a golden seat; and all was festivity and joy. When he had stayed awhile, he took leave, and went again to the Shah, praising him and his household; and the King spread another repast, over which they spent the night.

'In the morning, when the King went to Seudabeh, she began by praising the young man, and said: "We have daughters in the harem of thy own race, and of that of the kings of Aresh and Pishin; let us marry him to some one of these that he may have children of his own, worthy of him." This proposal pleased the King, and he asked Sijavesh whether he would take for a bride some one of his kinswomen, whom he had seen in the harem. Sijavesh received the hint with apparent complacency, but with inward anxiety; because in all this he could trace the hand of Seudabeh.

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She seated herself on her throne, and arranged the maidens around her; and when Sijavesh came in, she placed him by her side, that he might choose among all of them the fairest: while they, as they walked past, admired him, and each hoped in secret to be chosen.

'Now all the maidens had passed by, and still he sat thoughtful and silent. Then said the Queen: "No wonder that in my sunshine thou hast not seen these moons: but I will give thee my own daughter, if thou wilt swear to me that after thy father's death thou wilt embrace me in joy; for my soul and my body are thine, and thou canst command me as thou wilt." She then gave him such sounding kisses that the youth blushed. But in his heart he resolved not to become faithless to his father; and yet to conceal his determination, in order not to provoke the vengeance of Seudabeh. He therefore gave vague answers, consenting to accept the daughter, if his father should entirely approve it.

'When the King learned this decision of his son, he cheerfully opened all his treasures. But Seudabeh called once more the youth into the harem, and said: "I have obtained for you from the King twenty elephants laden with treasure; and here is my daughter, whom I confer upon you. Behold my countenance; for seven years it has burned with love towards you; therefore grant me in secret my wish. If thou refusest, I will be thy ruin; and darken to thee both sun and moon." But he went away frowning and refusing.

'Then she tore her clothes, scratched her cheeks with her nails, and, crying and weeping, ran to the Shah, to whom she related that Sijavesh had made to her a declaration of love, and that, on her resisting angrily, he had thus ill treated her. The Shah called Sijavesh before him. The youth denied the charge, and averred, in the name of God, that she had spoken untruths. But she persisted in her declaration, and added that the child which she was about to bear to the Shah had nearly perished from her anxiety. The Shah knew not which to believe: but at length this method suggested itself: he smelt over the whole body of Sijavesh; and, when he found no odour of the musk and rose-water which Seudabeh employed, he concluded that the youth had not touched her, and acquitted him. He was angry with Seudabeh: but, recollecting what she had done for him formerly in Hamaveran, and out of love to their common daughter, he let her go unpunished.

'Now the Queen thought of new mischief. One of her domestics, a bad woman, was with child, and to her she gave drugs which produced abortion. Two children were thus prematurely born, which she placed on golden dishes. She then sent away the woman, and began a loud lamentation. When the attendants came running, they were ordered to call the Shah, and she exhibited these children as his, pretending that the violence of Sijavesh had brought on her miscarriage. Khaus convened the astrologers: who consulted their astrolabes, and, after a week, pronounced that the children were not the children of the Shah, and had not Seudabeh for a mother. On the indications which they gave, he apprehended

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prehended the real mother, but neither rewards nor threats could extort from her any confession.'

'When Seudabeh learned what had happened to her servant, she came weeping to Khaus, and reproached him with his injustice: so that he again called the astrologers, who repeated that the children had this woman for a mother, and that they were a brood of Arîman. She replied that they spoke from fear of Sijavesh and Rusthem, and slandered her grossly; and she wept, and desperately tore her hair. Then was Khaus melted, so that he sat down and wept with her. Whereupon one of the Mobeds advised to elicit the truth by means of the ordeal; "for," said he, "Heaven never suffers the just to perish." Sijavesh offered to undergo the proof; for Seudabeh had said to him, "It is not I that can demonstrate my innocence, it is from your veracity that I expect acquittal."

'Then the Shah ordered two pyles of dry faggots and blocks of wood to be piled mountain high: naphtha was poured upon them: two hundred men stood by to fan the flame and stir the fire; and the heat spread two parasangs around. In a golden helmet and a white garment, Sijavesh came smiling to his father; who, moved in his soul, could not say many words. He then, still smiling, mounted his horse Shebrenk, offered a short prayer to God before the pyre, and plunged into the midst of the conflagration. The flames closed above his head, and he disappeared in the midst of them. Khaus fell down from his throne on the earth: but presently the youth came smiling and radiant as the moon, unsinged from amid the fire. Then all that were present kneeled down, thanked God for having preserved him in the great peril, and were full of joy and gratulation; all except Seudabeh, who angrily tore her hair. The father embraced the youth, who prostrated himself on the ground, and made a feast. For three days they were glad; on the fourth he ascended the throne as judge, and condemned Seudabeh to death. The Iranians approved, and the Shah ordered her to be hanged: but Sijavesh interceded for her, and she was pardoned.'

In the twenty-eighth saga of the Shah-nameh, which describes the war of Kai Khosrou, occurs the mention of the publication of the Zend-Avesta in these words: "It was Feridun who founded Kend; a fire-temple rises in Kend; the Zend-Avesta was given there; the Kendians now call it Beya-Kend." — In the thirty-first saga, Kai Khosrou is stated to have perished in a whirlwind of snow. If this be the Cyrus of history, his end is more probably related than by Herodotus. — The thirty-third saga furnishes some notice of Zerdusht, which we transcribe:

'Gushtasp and Kuthaioon had two sons, to be compared with the sun and moon; Asfendiar and Beshuthen were their names, and it seemed as if Feridun were returned upon earth. All the kings around brought tribute to Iran, and did homage at the court of the Shah; all the people were submissive; and all the Kishvers were

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were full of his name. Only Ardshasp, the Shah of Turan, was inspired by devils, and refused tribute.

'At this time sprang up in Iran a tree, of which the leaves were counsel and the fruit was wisdom. An old man appeared on the earth, in his hand the staff of Aud, and blessed was his footstep; his name was Zerdusht, and his arm smote the ill-working Ariman. To the Shah of the world he spake thus: "I am a messenger of Heaven, and will shew thee the way of the Lord. In Paradise I have kindled my fire-offering, and the Creator said to me: Take this flame with thee, behold the heaven above and the world beneath, I produced them without water and without earth. See man, whom I have made, and know that no one is like me, who am the Preserver of all. Now that thou knowest all this to have come from me, honour me as the Creator of all. From him who speaketh with thee receive faith, and teach his ways and his laws, and act as the great Architect teaches thee. Choose wisdom, use all things earthly as trifling, and learn that faith is the true life, and without it majesty is worthless."

'Gushtasp and Serir listened to his words, and also Lohrasp at Balkh. The great and the wise of all places came to the Shah to seek conversion; the idol-worship was suppressed, and the worship of fire founded in its stead. Into all the Kishvers an army of Mobeds was sent, the fire-temple at Bersin was erected, and worship and holy rites were there established. A holy cypress of Paradise he planted before the door of the fire-temple; and it was written on its high-sprouting branches how Gushtasp had declared for the true faith, and placed this tree in testimony that his soul was growing up in the right way.'

Although in this extract we find the name of the city of Balkh, there is some reason for suspecting that Baku, on the Caspian Sea, was the original reading of the word. Near Baku is a continual fire, an exhalation of hydrogen gas supplied by natural causes; and there the fire-worshippers had a temple and a school of such celebrity, that to this day pilgrims from Benares go to visit the *Ader*, or fire-column of Baku. In the Zend-Avesta, moreover, Baghdi is mentioned as the school of Zerdusht, which approaches nearer to Baku than to Balkh. Balkh is the least known of the great cities of the world.

At the end of the thirty-seventh saga, in which Rusthem is killed, the patience of Professor GOERRES appears to have become exhausted; and he substitutes an abridged and rapid narrative of the contents of the remaining cantos for an entire translation. Indeed, the romantic fables of the eastern nations concerning Alexander have little value where just historical views are entertained of his actions: they may supply hints to the poetic artist, but they can throw no light on the obscure points of antient history; and it is chiefly for the sake

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of the veiled truths which may lurk among the traditions of Ferdoosi, that Europeans will be disposed to study his works. His reputation as a poet evidently reposes much on the patriotic passion; on the pleasure which natives of Persia take in finding their mountains, their rivers, their lakes, their cities, their kings, and their sages, become the topics of song. The Shah-nameh certainly surpasses the chronicle of Robert of Gloucester, or the Polyolbion of Drayton: but its poetic rank is nevertheless not very conspicuous, since it contains few passages which display beauties of the higher order. The descriptions of scenery have not the precision and completeness with which similar objects are depicted in "Thalaba." The delineations of human manners come nearer to the variety and sympathy of Ariosto. Deep touches of pathos are rare, as they must be every where; and a want of purpose, of drift, and of design, is betrayed in the fable, which destroys the wholeness and unity of the work: thus crumbling it into a series of adventures, successive indeed but incoherent, not imagined at once, but joined together piece-meal. Still it is important to become acquainted with this national classic of the Persians; which is quoted so often and praised so loudly by the Orientals, that their stage of culture cannot be appreciated without a perusal of their favourite epopea. The Simurg and Rusthem supply their sculptors with topics, and their orators with allusions; and many monuments, as well as writings, would be unintelligible to the antiquary who had neglected to familiarize himself with the adventures detailed in the Shah-nameh. It is to Persia what Shakspeare is to England, the sacred book of the worshippers of poetry.

ART. II. *Lodoiska und ihre Dochter*, &c.; *i. e.* Lodoiska and her Daughter. A Romance. By Caroline, Baroness DE LA MOTTE FOUQUÉ. 3 Vols. 12mo. Leipsic. 1820. Imported by Bohte, London.

IN a very recent Number of our work (for October last), we had the pleasure of introducing to the notice of the *reading* public, more especially to the curious and observant in the language and literature of our neighbours, some singular and interesting productions of the wild and romantic genius of the Baron LA MOTTE FOUQUÉ. They were written in a novel and peculiar spirit, highly imaginative and original, and possessing much of that freshness and beauty of composition which indicate a creative power. These qualities, as exhibited in his romances of Undine and Sintram, have acquired

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quired for the author a very high reputation in his own country; not only among those who delight in strange and supernatural stories, but among those of more serious and contemplative natures, who are fond of exploring the mysterious and invisible world of mind, as well as the wonderful and fleeting phænomena of visible creation. It is to the union and command of both that FOUQUÉ is indebted for the powerful interest which he is enabled to exercise over the human feelings, as we may indeed gather not only from various passages of his works, but from some concluding paragraphs in the romance now before us: which proceeds from the pen of his lady; and which, though by no means proving an intellectual relationship either in its style or character with the more energetic writings of her husband, is still raised sufficiently above mediocrity to call for a candid discussion of its merits.

Were we, indeed, to regard popularity as the test of superiority in the romancers of Germany, we should feel bound to allow much weight to this consideration in favour of the Baroness; who is said to have obtained no little celebrity with the judges of fine writing, as well as of ingenious and interesting story. To our ideas of English taste and feeling, however, the matter may appear somewhat different. The case is not *quite* the same among us as with the Germans; who seem to require only to *feel* in order to be happy; and whose stronger and less discriminating appetite can digest aliment of a coarse as well as of a wholesome and natural composition, which to southern palates is often disagreeable, and not unfrequently disgusting. We thus find that the Italian cannot in the least assimilate itself to the Germanic taste, either in literature or in art.

We must apply this observation to the romance of Lodoiska, in which the national trait of exaggerated feeling, and of violent and improbable incidents, is strongly shewn; while its real beauties will be found to consist in poetic and impassioned language, occasional fine thoughts and sentiments, and an eloquent display of the more delicate emotions of the human heart. These are so widely removed from the common feelings and incidents of every-day life, that, far from being

"Familiar in our mouths as household names,"

the description of them can only be appreciated or even understood by those who, with much natural sensibility, have deeply studied the origin and progress of refinement; as well as those nice distinctions in matters of opinion, passion, and

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moral feeling, which attend a very advanced stage of civilized society. The excitement produced by this species of writing, however, can be felt only by a few; and we imagine that much of the peculiar merit evinced by the present fair author will be lost on the generality of her readers. Yet to a certain class, to those who are initiated in the subtile workings and movements of the spirit, in the gentler and sweeter sensibilities of the heart, and in a zealous devotion to objects of a refined or spiritual nature, the apparent extravagance and trifling manner shewn in a large portion of the work may appear under very different colours, and with attractions of no common description. The pleasure which they are calculated to produce, in enthusiastic temperaments, is both keener and more lasting than that which is enjoyed by those who are more callous or indifferent; and whose aim in novel-reading is rather to beguile the weariness of the passing hour, than to improve and extend their views of literary taste, feeling, and the fine arts.

Not writing, then, to the habits or for the approbation of the multitude, the qualities of sincerity and truth of composition may thus be granted to the Baroness: but we object that, in the zeal and ardour of her faith, she is apt to carry her peculiar system of romance and refinement of sentiment too far. Instead of those wild and daring delineations of moral feeling and passion, those terrible descriptions, and those allegorical representations of character, which form the attraction in the pages of the Baron, we find in those of Madame an opposite principle, and a different tone of thought and language pursued throughout. The style is more eloquent and poetical, the descriptions are more warmly and delicately wrought, the sentiments more studied, and often refined to a degree of distinction without a difference in sensibility and the subtlest workings of the mind. Feeling is converted into enthusiasm; taste into passion; and judgment and opinion into aggravated impressions, or mysterious devotion to spiritual objects, and to "the beautiful and the sublime." The ardour and eloquence of her manner, however, betray her into faults which are the result of this excess of romance. Too great excitement of feeling, expressed in glowing language, would seem to be her besetting sin; and, added to her mysterious doctrines, it leads to obscurity, exaggeration, and a study of dramatic effect. Hence, we have much that is vague and even unmeaning in the object and character of the work: the story is perplexed and broken; the management of the characters is too arbitrary, for they are dismissed or re-animated at pleasure; the interest is not well sustained; and the moral conclusion

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conclusion is not of the highest order. If, however, the design and objects of the romance are exceptionable, and the incidents and characters not conceived or preserved in the best taste, we must still give high praise to the style and execution, which are certainly accomplished by very striking and superior efforts of literary composition. With much lively remark and animated description, mingled with intelligent and even witty elucidation, are combined a rich vein of thought and feeling; a passionate and poetical flow of language, glowing with the freshness and beauty of aspiring but unearthly hopes; an intense spirit of love; and an ardent breathing after immortality, through the wreck and hopelessness of human joys.

To preserve poetical justice in the allotment of moral punishments and rewards, the fair author endeavours to atone for "the loss and perishing of all earthly things," by providing for her immaculate characters "a reversion of interests on high;" while she scruples not to award to those who are more exceptionable "ample room and scope enough" in this sublunary sphere to enjoy themselves: leaving her readers to form their own conclusion of a fair balance of accounts in a future judgment, from which there will be no appeal. Thus, she presents a very indifferent sort of personage, but a General-officer, and of some importance in her story, with the person of her beautiful heroine Lodoiska; reserving the lady's affections, and the admiration of all good readers, for a young and handsome man, Adjutant to the General who actually entraps her into a marriage. The romance is given in the epistolary form, and consists of a series of letters, accurately dated according to time and place, from the commencement of the year 1773 to that of 1794; and in this as well as many other unimportant matters, the work reminds us not a little of the exact delineation of circumstance, and minute points of character, which mark the voluminous novels of Richardson. We cannot, however, yield to the Baroness the praise due to the author of Clarissa for an uninterrupted and natural course of events, or even a connected manner of arranging the correspondence and progress of the story. In the latter we observe an *hiatus* from the year 1775 to 1791: which leaves great latitude for the imagination of the reader, but tends to confuse his ideas. The same objection will apply to the correspondence, which pays as little deference to the laws of time and place as the story itself.

For a proof of the justice of this last remark, we merely need to mention that Lodoiska is the heroine of only two volumes, and that the last is devoted to the adventures of her daughter

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daughter Verena; who steps on the stage, like Perdita, after a lapse of many years, a fair and blooming heroine of sixteen, ready to re-animate the drooping interest of the piece. This contrivance produces a repetition of sentiment and detail, perplexes the plot, and destroys the unity and effect of the whole:—yet in some degree it atones for the want of completeness, by affording occasions for the display of new situations and the developement of other scenes, united to passionate descriptions, and fresh powers of action in the personages of the former volumes.

The scene is extremely diversified; being alternately laid in Poland, in Hungary, and other parts of Germany;—in old castles, and Tartar fortresses, surrounded by frozen lakes and gloomy forests of pine. From Dukla Castle, situated near the banks of the river Pruth, Lodoiska writes to her friend Celestine, describing the wild and romantic scenery around her, the feelings of her heart, and the hopes which she indulges respecting a variety of objects in view. She is here expecting the arrival of her brother Count Vladislao Opalinsky, a Polish nobleman to whom the castle belongs. It appears that he had lately married a French lady, the beautiful but intriguing Melanie; on whom, with the Austrian *General*, much of the heroine's future destiny is made to depend. His Aide-du-camp, or Adjutant, known only by the name of William, is, however, the first to pay his addresses to Lodoiska; who, residing with only an old housekeeper, formerly her nurse, is terrified in the night by the cry of fire. She rushes to the window, but volumes of smoke impede her escape. In this dreadful situation, the young German makes his appearance, seizes the trembling Lodoiska in his arms, and bears her safely away from death. She thus describes her adventure: 'I know not how it was: but, in a moment, two strong arms embraced me; a countenance that was strange to me, but beaming like that of an angel, swam before my eyes; and a few words uttered in German seemed thus to reach my ears: "Fear not! I am with you." At that moment my senses fled.'

We are not surprized to find in the ensuing pages that her deliverer has made a favourable impression on her heart. He accompanies the General, as his Adjutant, to Castle Dukla;—and, though the son of Count M., a minister at the court of Vienna, he is contented to perform a very subordinate and unsatisfactory part among the personages who figure in the Baroness's pages. The General is also soon smitten with the charms of the young Lodoiska, and his suit is encouraged by the wily Melanie, the French wife of the Count.

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We are now presented with an entertaining account of the various characters, and persons of distinction, who visit at Castle Dukla; among whom are some Austrian officers, who may be supposed to be reconnoitring the Polish territories from the Castle, previously to the grand partition of the country. Melanie gives a humorous description of them, more especially of *the General*, who commands in the district. 'He is by descent a barbarian, and certainly sprang from some of the Hottentot countries which surround us. He seems to me at least to be half a Turk.' After more minute observations, she says, 'I wish to be very particular in my description of him, as I would have you be convinced that I am not cruel in promoting the passion of the poor General for our little Lodoiska. But I confess that I am still in doubt whether I ought to choose the General, or his young Adjutant, the brave officer who exerted himself so much in quenching the fire, and who saved by far the most valuable portion of the property in the Castle. You will perhaps say I am too busy: but no one can be too eager in anticipating the designs of other people: we are always meeting so many who are absolutely in our way.'

With such an ally, the old General becomes very importunate and very disagreeable to Lodoiska, who is far from forgetting her obligation to William. A lover soon discerns the more favoured pretensions of his rival, and poor William perceives not only the advantages which his commander possesses, but that he is assisted in his object by *her* relations. Without revealing his own passion, he therefore endeavours to put Lodoiska on her guard against the manœuvres of interested friends. Other characters are here introduced, and create a division of interests unfavourable to the General, though without materially assisting the views of the young lovers, for their passion is now certainly mutual; — and the old nurse of Lodoiska bewails her mistress's lot, whom she believes to be doomed by gipsy-prophecy to be given in marriage against her inclinations, and to an old man. The new visitors at Dukla Castle are Stanislaus Vingortzeffsky and his brother, the former of whom becomes passionately attached to the *besieged* heroine; and being, moreover, a Polish patriot, his suit is encouraged by Lodoiska's brother. He possesses a fine person and accomplished manners; and Lodoiska confesses to a friend that she could have loved him, were it not for the remembrance of him who rescued her from the flames. Melanie, Countess of Opalinsky, is at a loss to proceed in favour of the General, whom she supports for the sake of a family-alliance, while these young lovers are continually

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tinually thwarting her designs: but she determines at last to acquaint the high-spirited Stanislaus with the pretensions of William, and a duel between them ensues, though without ridding her of either the Austrian or the Polish officer.—William, however, being severely wounded by the Pole, the old General has a good opportunity of displaying before Lodoiska a kind interest in the fate of his Adjutant, and a humane disposition. He is thus enabled to mitigate her aversion towards him; and he promotes the favourable sentiment by feigning severe illness, and a fixed melancholy, as arising from his unrequited love.

These artifices, however, would probably never have succeeded, had they not been dexterously but treacherously seconded by the intrigues of Melanie: with whose *romantic diablerie* we are made acquainted in a letter from her friend Celestine to Frederic, an intimate acquaintance of William, to whom it may be supposed to have caused no little surprize and chagrin. The General is now pronounced to be dying; and in the night a priest taps at the door of Lodoiska's chamber, to inform her that the sick man was on the point of expiring, and had received the last blessing, but that one thing pressed heavily on his soul.

' "He has sworn that he would not quit this world without being in possession of your hand. This rash oath appears to weigh on his conscience, as if he could not be released. His agony is dreadful, and increases every moment."—"Heavenly Father!" cried Lodoiska, "what, what can I do?"—"Yield your hand," answered the priest, "with a holy blessing to the suppliant ere he die."—"Marry with the dead!" shrieked Lodoiska.—"Not to the dead, but to the dying; and it is but for a moment," he continued with a friendly voice, "you will soon again be free, and will have relieved a troubled soul." The wretched girl sat gazing on him, without knowing what to say or do. Just at this moment, appeared Melanie. "What!" she exclaimed, warmly, "do you still hesitate? Have you no pity for the sufferings of others? O, hasten to close those of a poor agonized old man, to whom you are so much indebted!" Without even waiting a reply, she raised the astonished girl, with the assistance of her French woman; flung a rich dress over her; arranged some sprigs of myrtle, with pearls and brilliants, in her hair; and thus leading her out between the priest and herself, they reached the gloomy room in which lay the sick man. The curtains were drawn closely round, and the sufferer with difficulty uttered some unintelligible words. The priest pronounced something in Latin, and all was still. Near to the dying person's bed sat Lodoiska. The curtains were slightly drawn back, her hand was folded in that of another, and quite unconscious she did all that was requested of her. She permitted the awful vow to escape her lips; and, the blessing being pro-

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nounced, she was just turning round to depart when two powerful arms detained her, and glowing lips were pressed to her own. "Thou art mine," cried a clear and strong voice; and active, proud, and exulting, the General stood by the side of his trembling bride, closely embracing her, while his animated looks dissipated the dream in which her senses had been lulled.

'The priest smote his cross, exclaiming, "This I had not foreseen." He sighed; and hastily, as if flying from the devil who had betrayed him, he ran out of the chamber.'

Lodoiska's treacherous sister affects perfect ignorance of the design of the General, though her hypocrisy fails to deceive the penetration of Stanislaus, who is enraged at being thus deprived of Lodoiska. The bride is now taken to her husband's castle, beautifully situated on the banks of the Dniester; where she is surrounded by his friends and attendants, and is decked out, like a sacrifice, with the utmost pomp and splendour. Here, too, she again meets with William, still the humble Adjutant of the General, and pining away his existence under a hopeless passion. The lovers have many interviews, but only with silent looks betray the anguish of their hearts; and even when placed in tender situations, not a word of passion, or even of explanation, passes between them. They are indeed under some apprehensions; for the General is peremptory and irascible, and will be obeyed both by his Adjutant and his wife. While the reader contemplates their provocation, their temptation, and their opportunities, he cannot withhold his admiration of the *difficult* propriety of their conduct, and of the delicate manner in which this portion of the subject is described. That the Baroness, however, can colour, and colour objects warmly, numerous passages of eloquent tenderness and elevated sentiment fully testify, both in the present work and in one of equal beauty intitled Feodora; which has also emanated from her pen.

We are soon informed that Lodoiska becomes a mother, and that her daughter is called Verena, after the patron Saint of Moldavia: but her husband is much dissatisfied that she did not bring him a son, and his vexation is increased by perceiving that the health of Lodoiska is gradually giving way. She communicates her sorrows to Celestine, and mingles the joys of maternal affection with anticipations of the tomb. 'There is something inexpressibly sweet,' she exclaims, 'something which we can neither describe nor explain in the joy of being a mother. It seems as if I no longer existed for myself. My whole being is wrapt up in that of my child, which seems at once to have deprived me of, and to have restored to me, the feelings of my heart and soul.'

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soul.' Lodoiska, however, is not long permitted to enjoy the calm delights of maternal affection: her health is entirely destroyed: for the last time she embraces Verena, and expires, uttering a prayer for her lover William, who soon follows her "in sorrow to the tomb."

At this period of the history, a new series of incidents and events commences under the auspices of a younger heroine. Soon after the death of his wife, the old General determines to visit the castle of Dukla, with his daughter; and, "albeit unused to the melting mood," he is much affected, as well as Verena, on beholding the former residence of Lodoiska. Bent down with age and regret, he is now obliged to resort to the baths of Carasu: but he grows rapidly worse; and Verena, who has reached the age of sixteen, is inconsolable at the idea of being deprived of her father, in a strange land, at a distance from friends and home. We must here mention that Stanislaus, who had been so treacherously treated by Melanie, and betrayed by her in his designs of emancipating Poland as well as in the affair of Lodoiska, had taken signal revenge on her by robbing her of her infant son. In order to promote his views of delivering his country, and avoiding all pursuit, he gives out a report that he is dead; and, assuming the name of Achmed, he educates the child as his relation, and calls him Jagello. Disguised as an eastern chief, he meets with Verena and her father on their journey, performs some signal acts of kindness, vanishes, and appears again at the precise juncture in which his services are wanted. In short, he makes himself so necessary to them, and so agreeable, that as an 'interesting unknown' he wins the young lady's affections; and the General is also so well satisfied with him, that he unites the hands of the lovers just before he expires. Stanislaus, in his letters to his friend Count Felix Potocki, relates his adventures, his union with the young Verena, and his patriotic hopes of rescuing Poland from her oppressors.

The character of this officer is well and powerfully drawn, and indeed, we think, much better than any other in the work. It must have been the favourite also with the fair author, for in its developement she has exhausted all the strength of political and moral sentiment, beauty of description, and the charms of eloquent and impassioned language. He thus describes his feelings to his friend: 'It is indeed the perpetual curse of humanity, that we never dare to pronounce ourselves happy. It would seem as if condemnation were already begun on earth, and the eternal judgment threatens to punish even such as are endeavouring to retrace

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the steps of error, and are filled with repentance and remorse.' He then relates his strange and eventful history; depicting the struggles of a proud spirit in the cause of virtue and freedom, meeting with disappointment and sorrow, yet resolutely devoted to the happiness and liberty of his friends and his country. To all this is united a passionate attachment to Verena, which he thus describes: 'She is mine, Felix, mine in sorrow and in joy, bound to me for life and death; the sacred vow has passed her beauteous lips; and, glowing with love, her troubled heart at last beats warm and freely against mine. Shall I dare to dissolve the charm? It seemed to me as if Heaven itself took pleasure in the blushing confession of her love. In deep and holy contrition, I promised (full of grateful emotion) that my future life should be pure and peaceful, that I would return to my native land, and be reconciled with all my foes.'

These good intentions, however, are unfortunately frustrated. Jagello, who should have been the bond of reconciliation between the families, has unaccountably disappeared; and Stanislaus, who has never cleared up the *mystery of his transformation*, tries the strength of Verena's confidence and attachment by still affecting *mystery*, yet requiring implicit obedience from her in following him through his strange and wayward career. They travel over the Carpathian mountains, and along the banks of the Dnieper, in search of the strayed Jagello; who is in fact, by a happy adventure, safely restored to his parents, though without being recognized as their son. Stanislaus now confesses to the Count and Melanie the mystery of Jagello's disappearance; and, having recovered his lost Verena, who, by a sort of retributive justice, had been likewise kidnapped by them from him, he sets out with her for England, intending afterward to proceed to America. Before he has long favoured us with his company in England, he hears of the glorious struggle of his countrymen in Poland, and determines to join the standard of Kosciusko without delay. 'The revolution of Warsaw, he writes, 'has awakened us from our inglorious rest. The hero, Kosciusko, bears on high the banners of liberty. I have made myself known to him, and he has intrusted to my conduct a noble band. Bravely will I now march to the battle-field, and combat with the hated foe for our native land. I will meet and struggle with him wherever I can; and, in contending for the honour of Poland, endeavour to recover my own.' — Shortly afterward he continues: 'The Russians are overthrown: they fly even over our frontiers from the victorious Kosciusko:' — but soon again we read: 'O Ve-

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'O Verena, the Prussians have defeated us near Salze, and the hero Kosciusko has met with his master. But we are not cast down; the victory will perhaps not long continue theirs. Yet I fear treachery. We are negociating about Cracow. I must hasten there to save all that may yet be in our power.' He then bids Verena farewell; and once more visiting the castle of Dukla, with the wounded Jagello, after a full reconciliation with the Opalinsky family, he returns to the army, and falls, among the foremost in the field, in the terrible engagement that decided the fate of Poland. We are somewhat consoled for this unpleasant termination of affairs, by finding that the heroine, who is still residing in England, has sufficient fortitude and resignation (in the true German spirit) to put the best construction on the case, and bears up spiritedly against the double loss of her husband and her country. In a letter dated February, 1793, and addressed 'to all her friends beyond the seas,' she thus expresses herself: 'No, I am not unfortunate! I return thanks to God, for I know that my beloved rests in the lap of angels; and without anxiety or reproach I preserve his image indelibly in my soul. It seems as if the ocean were rolling between me and the troubles of the past. Have the waves washed them for ever away? for the thoughts that are present with me now are only that he dearly loved me, and fell for his native land. Repose and peace be to his ashes! and peace to our troubled hearts. You shall often hear again from your appy and affectionate Verena.'

Such is the singular conclusion of the romance; a true romance, in the *most dreaming* acceptation of the term. Not only in the story but in the incidents and the manner of their introduction, we are obstructed by a something obscure and undefined, a want of meaning as to the objects and reasoning in view, and even a vagueness in the sentiments and language. We imagine that these faults are the consequence of a too strong excitement of feeling, and an inordinate study of effect.—Many fine qualities, however, are perceptible in the writings of the Baroness; and those who delight in impassioned sentiment, eloquent and poetic language, with lovely and enthusiastic views of nature and of human life, will here find ample gratification for their taste. In fact, more of "good than of evil" is discoverable in the modern romances of the Germans; which display a more national tone, and a stronger spirit of nature and of truth, than have hitherto characterized this portion of their literature. That this reformation, and the introduction of a calmer and more lofty genius, devoted to purer and higher objects, both in the drama

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and the novel, are the result of the historical and critical researches which have, of late, so much distinguished some German writers, is a truth from which we augur well of the future superiority of their literature and poetry over the various epochs of their past history.

ART. III. *Mémoires de l'Académie Royale des Sciences*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences of the Institute of France, Vols. II. and III., for the Years 1817 and 1818.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix.*]

WE hasten to bring our report of these volumes to a close, by adverting to the *Physical* portions of the History of the Academy, and a Memoir or two contained in each. The physical notices, we need scarcely observe, proceed from the pen of the Chevalier *Cuvier*, perpetual Secretary, and are arranged, as usual, under certain general categories.

Vol. II.—HISTORY.

From some ingenious experiments by M. *Desprets* on the external conductibility of bodies, or the property by which their heat is assimilated to that of the surrounding air or of other adjacent bodies, we may infer that it is most conspicuous in lead, then in cast iron, and next in forged iron, tin, zinc, and brass.

As the vapour which issues from the thermal waters of Mont d'Or, near Clermont, occasionally affects those who approach them with uneasy sensations, especially before a thunder-storm, M. *Bertrand*, physician of the place, has endeavoured to account for the phænomenon by the agency of electricity: but his experiments scarcely warrant any such conclusion; and, as these waters abound in carbonic acid, the Secretary suggests that the circumstance may, perhaps, be more justly attributed to the greater or less degree of external or internal temperature, and to the greater or less quantity of carbonic acid, resulting from the variable resistance which the state of the atmosphere presents to its liberation.

Since the discovery that the fixed alkalies are only metallic oxyds, chemists have somewhat anxiously investigated the formation of *liver of sulphur*, and have endeavoured to ascertain whether the alkali enters into it as an oxyd or as a metal. The arguments urged by *Vauquelin* in favour of the former supposition derive confirmation from the experiments of *Gay-Lussac*.

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It is well known that the black oxyd of manganese, treated in the hot way with caustic potass, fuses into a green matter, of which the solution, at first of the same colour, afterward passes to blue, violet, and red; and that *Scheele*, who first observed these changes, denominated the combination which exhibits them the *Mineral Cameleon.*

'MM. *Chevillot* and *Edwards* directed their attention to this singular substance, and in the first instance ascertained that no cameleon can be produced without the access of air; that it is formed in oxygen more readily than in the atmosphere; and that, during its formation, it absorbs more oxygen than would be taken up by potass alone. In consequence of varying the proportions of the ingredients, they found that the cameleon is of a brighter and purer green according as they employed less manganese and more potass; and that, by increasing the former ingredient and diminishing the other, until both were equal, they immediately procured red cameleon: which, dissolved and evaporated, yields beautiful crystals, comparable to carmine, unalterable in the air, and capable of colouring a great quantity of water, the alkali being perfectly neutralized. These chemists purpose to prosecute their experiments, and hope to deduce from them the causes of the remarkable phænomena presented by the mineral cameleon.'

In consequence of a very careful chemical analysis of the plants from which ipecacuanha is procured, and of various experiments on the human and other animal subjects, MM. *Magendie* and *Pelletier* have arrived at the conclusion that the medicinal principle involved in these vegetables, and which alone excites vomiting, is a substance soluble in alcohol, and in water; and they term it *émétine.* It is obtained under the form of transparent reddish-brown scales, almost inodorous, slightly acrid and bitter; and, when administered in a suitable dose, it not only induces retching, but is accompanied by a decided tendency to sleep. *Sertürner*, *Robiquet*, and *Orfila*, have laboured also to detach the appropriate deleterious quality of opium; and, although their sentiments are in some respects at variance, we may collect from their statements that, if we would discover any succedaneum for this important drug, we must search for the presence of *morphine* in our indigenous vegetables.

In this year, M. *Sage* published four memoirs on sea-water. In the composition of this fluid, he announces the presence of a special acid, which he terms *Neptunian gas;* and which he describes as oleaginous, alkaline, inodorous, and as affecting the salubrity of water distilled from that of the ocean.

Mineralogy and Geology. — This section opens with an intimation of the Abbé *Haüy*'s Treatise on Precious Stones, which

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which we reported some time ago. Mention is also made of the experiments which M. *Beudant* submitted to the Academy, and which incontestibly prove the controuling influence exercised by certain crystallized substances over others, in constraining them to *conformity*. In this respect, the sulphat of iron rules with despotic sway; for, if in a solution of that salt, and of sulphat of copper, the mixture contains only one-tenth of the former, the whole will crystallize in the form of sulphat of iron. With sulphat of zinc, 10½ of sulphat of iron will establish this domineering influence; and if to one-fourth of sulphat of zinc, and three-fourths of sulphat of copper, be added only two or three *per cent.* of sulphat of iron, the whole will assume the crystalline form of the latter. This phænomenon is the more remarkable, when we reflect on the dissimilarity of the primitive and secondary forms of the substances employed in the experiment.

A mineral specimen of a peculiar aspect, and supposed to be a modification of chalcedony, found by M. *Lelièvre* in a lead mine in the Pyrénées, has been analyzed by *Berthier*, and ascertained to be a siliciferous hydrate of alumine, containing 44,5 of alumine, 15 of silica, and 40,5 of water.

M. *Laugier* has completed the demonstration of the analogies between the Siberian mass of iron and meteorites, by extracting from the former not only nickel but chrome.

The discharges from the *Salse*, or mud-volcanoes of Italy and Sicily, having been represented by some writers as of very limited extent, and as much more copious by others, M. *Mesnard-Lagroye* has been enabled by personal observation to state that they vary in this respect at different times: but that they are always very inferior to the eruptions of real burning mountains; and that they are situated in the neighbourhood of springs of petroleum, hot waters, natural fires, and the verge of the last marine lime-stone.

According to *Humboldt*, some of the larger caverns in the porphyritic and volcanic chain of the Andes appear to have resulted from gaseous emanations.

Botany. — Sir James Smith's arrangement of the *Filices* has been adopted and extended by some of the most distinguished of the continental botanists. M. *Desvaux*, Director of the Botanic Garden at Poitiers, in a memoir on this subject, divides them into four sections, according to the structure of the capsule: but his classification of the *Opioglossa* with the *Lycopodia* appears to be a very unnecessary deviation from the ordinary method.

If we may be allowed to judge of M. *Richard*'s Latin memoir on the *Orchideæ* from the short outline of it which is traced

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in this report, it is the fruit of much assiduous observation, and promises to fix the arrangement of this singular family of plants on a more stable basis than heretofore. In the meanwhile, it is worthy of remark that, among the numerous parasitical species discovered in America, not one is furnished with a spur, whereas this appendage is far from uncommon in those which belong to Asia and Africa.

Our botanical readers are, perhaps, aware that M. *Bonpland* having returned to America in quest of new *spoils*, M. *Humboldt* has had recourse to the talents of Professor *Kunth*, of Berlin, to assist in the description of three or four thousand species of plants, most of which are non-descript. This department of the former voyage will occupy six or seven folio volumes; of which the first, containing the monocotyledinous tribes, amounting to 800 species, is already published, and other portions are in a state of great forwardness. To M. *Kunth*'s scientific descriptions, M. *Humboldt* purposes to subjoin special notices of the varieties of form which most abound under particular latitudes; and of the influence of heat, light, and moisture, on the modification of the respective families.

Zoology. — M. *Daudebart de Férussac*, who has long and diligently directed his investigations to the study of terrestrial and fresh-water shells, and to the animals which inhabit them, has made considerable progress in the preparation of a large work, destined to exhibit them in their native colours, and to unfold all the information which has been collected concerning them.

An interesting memoir from the pen of *Walckenaer* details the proceedings of a species of *Andrena*, the individuals of which consist mostly of females, who work at their subterraneous cells in the night, and gather pollen and honey for their larvæ during the day. M. *Moreau de Jonnès* is the author of a memoir on the habits of the *Mygale avicularis*, a large American spider; which he had occasion to observe in Martinique, and which preys on humming-birds, small lizards, &c. From its fecundity and retention of the vital principle, its race would speedily multiply to an overwhelming amount, were not legions of the young destroyed, almost at birth, by the red ants.

We have to congratulate the lovers of ornithology on the re-appearance of the Abbé *Manesse*, advantageously known by a treatise on the stuffing and preparation of animals for the cabinet, and particularly conversant in the manners of various species of birds. Indeed, few individuals can be cited who have more accurately or more assiduously

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assiduously studied the history of their pairing and breeding; and he possessed a most extensive collection of eggs, which were labelled with the greatest precision. Scarcely would he rely on any person's authority but his own; and he would not determine the species to which an egg belonged, until he had, with his own eyes, watched the economy of both the parents. In the prosecution of his researches, he maintained a widely diffused correspondence, and engaged in the most painful and laborious excursions; exploring the mountains of Scotland, and the marshes of Hungary and Sweden; and clambering up the loftiest trees, by the help of two prongs fitted to boots for the purpose, and a belt, which embraced both his body and the tree. In 1789, he had accumulated a large mass of notes, and, at the solicitation of M. *Dorcy*, had consented to prepare them for the press, accompanied by figures of all the eggs with which he was acquainted: but the Revolution interrupted his project; and, for a long period, he was reckoned in the numerous list of emigrants. He has at length emerged; and the Academy has encouraged him to resume the plan of his publication.

M. *Humboldt* has described a singular American bird, which he has denominated *Steatornis*, from the quantity of fluid fat which it yields. It is as large as our domestic cock, and of nocturnal habits. The same indefatigable traveller continues to publish, in his Zoological Observations, the South American insects collected by *Bonpland*, and described by *Latreille*; while *Pallisot de Beauvois* has completed the first volume, illustrative of the insects which he observed in his travels in Africa and America.

Comparative Anatomy.—Under this head, several pages are allotted to the consideration of the memoirs of the Chevalier *Geoffroy-Saint-Hilaire* on certain analogies, real or supposed, between particular portions of the skeleton in the different classes of vertebrate animals: but we cannot pretend to judge with accuracy of the author's reasoning, without having recourse to the text and the plates by which it is accompanied. He has, doubtless, examined the parts of organization in question with much diligence and ingenuity: yet we are tempted to suspect that, in more instances than one, his deductions are somewhat overstrained. The leading doctrine which he labours to establish is, that all the vertebrate animals are fashioned on a common model; and that, whatever may be the diversity of structure which has given rise to their division into mammalia, birds, reptiles, and fishes, such a diversity is merely apparent, and marks a fundamental similarity of organization. Now, the proofs requisite to demonstrate

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strate this similarity should be deriveable from each family, and from the locality of each organ. If, for example, the parallel shall be found to fail in the bony, the muscular, or the nervous system, we are, in fairness, constrained to abandon the principle. Thus, birds have neither breasts nor diaphragm; nor can we perceive which of their organs can be regarded as the equivalent of either. Again, to allege that their wings represent our arms, and our hands, is to confound the disposition, forms, and uses of the organs compared. Surely little can be gained in exact science by assimilating the human nose to the trunk of the elephant. The Chevalier's hypothesis that the caloric, which holds the atmosphere in solution, is composed of seven elements, which remain combined in tranquil air, but separate when the same air is agitated, polarize by movement, and, thus set free, form the matter of sound, may be both original and ingenious, but waits for satisfactory confirmation. The Secretary of the Academy, who, perhaps, yields to none in his skill and knowlege in comparative anatomy, touches with becoming gentleness on the objectionable parts of his colleague's disquisitions.

Physiology. — Our attention is next invited to the experiments of Dr. Edwards on respiration. To prove the existence of a supplementary breathing apparatus, or of a communication between the external atmosphere and the animal system,—independently of the circulation of the blood and of the action of the lungs,—frogs, toads, and salamanders, from which the heart was removed, were placed in the air, in common water, and in water deprived of air; and it was found that those in the air lived much longer than any of the others, and that those in common water lived a little longer than those in the same fluid when deprived of air. The individuals immersed in water, when apparently dead, were repeatedly revived on being brought into the open air. What is more extraordinary, these animals, when entire, and completely inclosed in plaister or buried in sand, live much longer than when put into water, or even into the open air; a circumstance which Dr. E. endeavours to explain by alleging that both plaister and sand are permeable to air, at the same time that they diminish the transpiration which seems to abridge the life of reptiles. Their existence in solid bodies, however, was not found to be susceptible of indefinite prolongation: nor did any of this gentleman's experiments sanction the credibility of toads remaining alive for centuries in blocks of stone, marble, &c.

The action of the arteries has long been supposed to aid the motions of the heart, in the circulation of the blood: but the existence of the muscular tunic of the arteries has been

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been lately called in question; and M. *Bichat* regards the canals themselves as merely passive tubes, obedient to the impulse of the heart. This doctrine has been combated by *Magendie*, in the second volume of his Elements of Physiology; in which an inherent elasticity, both in the large and the small arteries, seems to be demonstrated.

M. *Esquirol*, author of a memoir on *Hallucination*, or that modification of mental derangement which is limited to some one object, the understanding remaining sound when exercised on any other topics, informs us that this disorder is either of an acute or a chronic type; and is marked, like other disorders, by a progress, paroxysms, abatements, and, not unfrequently, by a fortunate termination. The examples of cases adduced are both numerous and diversified. The illusion sometimes affects one or two only of the external senses, and at others all of them: sometimes, again, it is durable, and occasionally only transient. A man will believe that only once in his life he has had intercourse with superior beings: but the impression is sufficiently strong to accompany him through his existence. This partial insanity may often be traced to some sudden or extraordinary event, deeply affecting the patient's feelings or interests; and it seems to be so intimately connected with the imagination, that it is most successfully treated through the intervention of that faculty: the ethical physician lending himself to its vagaries, and soothing the fancies of the individual, until he contrives gently to counteract them by some other series of impressions: but he is still more certain of preventing such aberrations by previously forming the judgment of youth on solid instruction.

M. *Portal*, in a memoir on Vomiting, attributes that inverted motion to the contractile power of the stomach, powerfully aided by the action of the transverse muscles of the abdomen. The same affection in the inferior animals forms the subject of a memoir by M. *Girard*, professor of anatomy in the Veterinary School of Altorf: who shews that it is common, or rare, or unknown, according to the position of the œsophagus with respect to the stomach, the diameter of the pylorus, the number of stomachs, &c. M. *Portal* has also communicated some valuable information relative to cases of dilatation of the heart, with the respective modes of treatment, according to the cause in which the symptoms originate. The same intelligent physician considers what is commonly termed inflammation of the peritonæum to be always connected with an inflammable state of some of the abdominal viscera.

'Of

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'Of all the articulate sounds in our language, that of the letter *R* is the most difficult for our organs, and the last which children learn to pronounce well; there are even some individuals who never attain to it; nor will this excite our surprise when we are informed that this letter requires on the part of the muscles, the larynx, the roof of the palate, the tongue, the lower jaw, and the lips, not fewer than twenty-six distinct movements, which have been all particularized by physiologists. M. *Fournier* has read to the Academy a memoir on that defect of speech which is called *burring* (*grosseyement*); and on the power of correcting it when it proceeds from a sluggishness of the organs, or from a bad habit, by a method which was suggested to him by M. *Talma*. It consists in drilling the individuals addicted to it to substitute for the letter *R*, in the words which require it, the two mute consonants, *T*, *D*, until they are accustomed to pronounce them with considerable rapidity, so as in some measure to blend them into one sound. M. *Fournier* assures us that this exercise so completely trains the muscles that the enunciation of *R* is very easily accomplished; and he has tried the experiment on many individuals, with none of whom does it fail but those who are affected by some inherent and invincible defect.'

Surgery. — M. *Petit*, a young surgeon of promise, in treating strictures of the urethra, has improved on the method proposed by Mr. John Hunter and Sir Everard Home, by substituting for the bougie a sound of elastic gum; fixing the caustic by a resinous substance; and smearing the whole apparatus, except the point, with tallow. Under deliberate management, the caustic, thus prepared, is said to act safely, and with little suffering to the patient.—By the application of iron, heated till it becomes white, to the crown of the head, so as to burn the integuments and even singe the bone, M. *Gondret*, a young physician, is said to have dispelled gutta serena, epilepsy accompanied with idiocy, and other chronic and obstinate affections. The committee appointed to examine his cases of treatment have given the most satisfactory report of his success. He has likewise employed an ammoniacal pomade, or soap, by way of caustic or blister, with the most flattering results.

M. *Sédillot*, who has paid particular attention to cases of muscles ruptured by accident, recommends, as the most effectual remedy, a gentle, uniform, and constant compression.—Dissatisfied with all the attempts which have been made to explain the cause of the *aria cattiva*, which prevails in certain districts of Italy, M. *Rigaud* maintains that it originates in the atmosphere and its vapours, and that it is a deleterious principle, *sui generis*. If so, wherefore is it limited to Italian skies?

Rural

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Rural Economy. — M. *Proust* has ascertained that, although grain has germinated to a certain degree, it may nevertheless be converted into wholesome bread. — The younger *Huzard*, who was sent over to England to ascertain the causes of the superiority of our breeds of horses, attributes it chiefly to occasional importations of stallions from Arabia, Barbary, Turkey, and Persia; and to our national partiality to horse-racing, which has stimulated the study of the best qualities belonging to this noble race of animals. — M. *Christian* has invented a machine for separating the ligneous from the fibrous portions of flax and hemp, which is said to be superior to any former contrivance of the kind.

Memoir.

The only memoir in this volume, which remains for us to notice, is intitled, *Researches on the Term of Gestation and of Incubation in the Females of several Domestic Quadrupeds and Birds.* By M. Tessier. — The mean term of gestation in the human subject has been sufficiently ascertained by the widest induction of individual cases: but to adjust the extremes of its prematurity and prolongation is still one of the undetermined problems of medical jurisprudence. With a reference to its solution on physiological principles, the Marquis *de Condorçet* had suggested the propriety of studying the breeding economy of the inferior animals; and the author of the present memoir, forcibly struck with the hint, has collected a stock of facts and calculations with respect to a few of our domestic quadrupeds and birds. His results denote a wider interval between the extreme terms than might be at first anticipated. Thus, the cow usually goes with calf nine months and some days, but sometimes eight months, and even ten months and twenty-one days; the difference between the longest and shortest gestation thus amounting to eighty-one days. The ordinary term of the mare is eleven months and some days: but it has been retarded to nearly fourteen months; and the greatest difference extends to one hundred and thirty-two days. The sheep is pregnant about five months: but many produce their young before the expiration of that period, and a few beyond it, the greatest variation being eleven days. An interval of eight days was observed to occur between the extremes of gestation of one hundred and sixty-one female rabbits, &c. M. Tessier remarks that none of the causes, hitherto assigned for these deviations from the standard term, appear to be satisfactory; nor does he undertake to explain them. His tabular exposition of various cases

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cases has, however, laid the basis for the operations of future inquirers.

Vol. III. — History.

Report communicated to the Royal Academy of Sciences, of a work by M. Vicat, *Engineer of Bridges and Highways, intitled, "Experimental Researches relative to the different Sorts of Lime for building,"* &c. — With the view of apprizing the Academy of the precise object of the author's investigations, the reporters, MM. *Prony*, *Gay-Lussac*, and *Girard*, have traced succinctly the outlines of prior discoveries and practices with regard to the binding materials of buildings of different descriptions, and have thus produced an architectural paper well worthy of the perusal of all whom it may concern. The Appian way, and the aqueduct which conveyed the *Aqua Claudia* over the Aventine hill, sufficiently attest that the use of lime in the preparation of mortar was known in Italy 313 years before the Christian æra. The common notion that Vitruvius first indicated the proportions of sand and lime, in the composition of mortar, is evidently erroneous; since Porcius Cato, who lived 200 years earlier, not only mentions, in his treatise *De Re Rustica*, two measures of sand and one of lime, but specifies the external characters of the limestones which he believed to be of the best quality. Vitruvius, however, enters into more minute details, and remarks that the proportions of lime and sand should vary according to the properties of the latter. He likewise adverts to the consolidating qualities of the *pulvis puteolanus*, or *puzzolana*, even under water. Pliny does little else than retail the directions of Vitruvius: but he remonstrates against the rapacity of those builders who, by subtracting the lime from their mortar, prepared by anticipation the ruin of the very walls which they reared. In the 15th and 16th centuries, *Alberti*, *Palladio*, and *Scamozzi*, in Italy, and *Philibert de Lorme*, in France, seem merely to have followed the prescriptions of Vitruvius and Pliny. Instead of the Italian puzzolana, the Dutch had first recourse to the pounded trass of Andernach, the tufa of the extinct volcanoes on the banks of the Rhine. Towards the middle of the last century, the high price of trass, and the trouble of fetching puzzolana from the neighbourhood of Naples, suggested to M. *Baggé*, of Gothenburg, a Swedish engineer, the calcination of a sort of compact schistus; which, when pounded, and mixed with lime, was found to form a hydraulic mortar. His countryman, *Bergmann*, discovered that the setting of the Lena lime, under water, was owing to its containing a small portion of oxyd of manganese.

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Additional light was thrown on the binding properties of certain lime-stones by the patient investigations of Mr. Smeaton, previously to his commencement of the Eddystone-light-house. *Loriot*, *De la Faye*, *Guyton de Morveau*, and others, endeavoured to ascertain the cause of the great hardness of the mortar used by the antients, and to elucidate the ambiguous text of Pliny: but Dr. Black's elegant explanation of the chemical composition of lime-stone, and Dr. Higgins's masterly "Experiments and Observations, made with the View of improving the Art of composing and applying Calcareous Cements," at once resolved numerous doubts and conjectures. The theory of *Achard*, of Berlin, is analogous to that of Dr. Higgins, and leads to similar results. In 1777, *Faujas de Saint-Fond* shewed that the volcanic tufa of the Vivarais might be advantageously substituted for puzzolana. *Guyton* suggested the trial of a volcanic basalt, which, when calcined and pounded, was also found to supply the place of puzzolana; and he, moreover, instituted various experiments on meager lime-stone, containing a certain portion of oxyd of manganese. He was followed by *Chaptal*; who, in 1787, published an account of his experiments on ochraceous earths as a succedaneum for puzzolana, some of which were found to answer expectation. — The commissioners next advert to the experiments of *Rondelet*, the architect of the church of Ste. Geneviève, on different descriptions of mortar employed in the open air, and trials of bits of broken tile, puzzolana, and trass of the Vivarais, and of Scotland. The results are consigned to the first volume of his *Traité Théorique et Pratique de l'Art de Bâtir*. It would be tedious to recite the processes detailed by the elder *Gratien*, at Cherbourg, *Le Sage*, and others; which confirmed or extended the line of discovery in this important department of practical architecture: but it is of consequence to remark that meager lime-stone, though destitute of the oxyd of manganese, has been found to possess the property of setting under water; and that an admixture of silica and alumine, with the presence of oxyd of iron, produces the same effect. *Descotils*, however, is disposed to regard a great number of siliceous particles as of more essential importance than any other of the ingredients.

M. *Vicat* divides his work into three sections; the first of which treats of lime, and includes several chapters relative to the different sorts of that substance which are adapted to the purposes of building, the stones which furnish it, the action exercised on it by fire, various processes for quenching quick-lime, the accompanying phænomena, the combination of water

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with lime, and the influence of that liquid and atmospheric air on the hydrates. One remarkable difference between common or *fat* lime-stone, and that which is called *meager*, is that, when submerged under a superabundant quantity of water, the former absorbs from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ its own weight of the fluid, whereas the latter absorbs scarcely more than a half less. Meager lime, reduced to a liquid paste, and afterward immersed, rejects a portion of its contained water: but if, instead of being reduced to a *liquid*, it has been formed into a *solid* paste, it absorbs an additional quantity.

'There exists, then,' says the author, 'between these two extremes, a mean degree of pasty consistency, which manifests neither rejection nor absorption of water: thus the principles, which constitute the *meager* or *hydraulic* lime-stones, have a tendency to unite chemically through the medium of a determinate quantity of water which passes to the solid state; and, in order to harden, therefore, they do not require the contact of air and consequent desiccation. The common or *fat* limes, on the other hand, by laying hold, in the same circumstances, of much more water than they can consolidate, and not possessing the faculty of rejecting the superfluous portion of it, constantly remain in the state of soft paste, not only under water, but also in impermeable basins, in which they are covered with earth or sand.'

Having ascertained that the qualities of lime vary not only in different districts but even in the same quarter, and that neither the oxyd of iron nor that of manganese is essential to constitute *meagerness*, M. *Vicat* began to try whether such a property might not be communicated by artificial means; and, following *De Saussure*'s indications synthetically, he arrived at the discovery that, by allowing common lime to be reduced to a fine powder in the open air, kneading it by means of a little water with grey or brown clay, or even brick-dust, and making it up into balls, which undergo a second calcination, the product is eminently endued with the property of a hydraulic cement. With regard to the mode of quenching lime, *that* is to be preferred which most attenuates its particles, and thus enables us to obtain its maximum of consolidation. The alteration on the hydrates of lime, induced by their laying hold of the carbonic acid diffused in the atmosphere, is quite superficial; in the case of the meager, not amounting to more than six millimeters, and in that of the ordinary sort, to scarcely three, in the course of a year, the interior of the mass remaining in the state of hydrate.

M. *Vicat*'s second section relates to the composition of hydraulic cements. For the attainment of this object, so many combinations have been recommended, that he despairs

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of instituting a sufficient number of experiments to determine which is absolutely the best; or in what precise proportions the ingredients should be used, so as to produce the most durable binding: but the commissioners hint at ferruginous clay, coal ashes, blue schistus, and basalt, each of which requires its appropriate coction, and to be varied in quantity, according to the quality of the lime employed. One of the most remarkable facts, which seem to have occurred to the author's observation, is that long exposure to the air, under a shed from which the rain and wind are excluded, imparts to very fat lime, that has been spontaneously quenched, very decided hydraulic properties. It is likewise highly deserving of attention that a meager lime sometimes contains in itself the requisite quantity of puzzolanic matter; and that the addition of extraneous substances may, in that case, prove more hurtful than advantageous. Hence we may infer, that the diversified composition of meager lime-stone will account for the apparently discordant reports of different experimenters. Another important result from M. *Vicat*'s multiplied researches is that, in cement prepared with fat lime, the progress to the maximum of consolidation is more tardy than in that which is prepared with meager lime.

The third section is principally devoted to the consideration of ordinary or white mortars, used in building in the open air. On this topic he is inclined to distrust the accuracy of many former experiments, because they were not conducted under similar circumstances; and he enters into much theoretical and practical discussion concerning the combination of different sorts of lime and sand. Towards the conclusion of the book, he draws a curious parallel of the comparative degrees of resistance manifested by antient and modern mortars. Of the former, some appear to have been indebted, for their high degree of tenacity, less to time than to the original excellence of the materials of which they were composed.

As far as we can judge of the merits of M. *Vicat*'s publication from the report before us, we entertain no doubt that it will amply reward the trouble of a deliberate perusal; and we should be glad to find the valuable information, which it imparts, rendered accessible to the English reader.

Chemistry. — The chemical department opens with the annunciation of two newly discovered substances; the first, at once metallic and alkaline, and the second metallic and acidifiable. For the former, we are indebted to M. *Arfvedson*, a young Swedish chemist, and the pupil of *Berzelius*; who detected it in a minute quantity in petalite, and afterward in

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in triphane. The new term, *lithion*, denotes its stony origin, in contra-distinction to the other two fixed alkalies, which are derived from vegetables. The second substance was discovered by *Berzelius* himself in a manufactory of sulphuric acid at Fahlun, in Sweden, deposited in the chamber in which pyritous sulphur was burned, and giving out the radish odour of tellurium. It is very volatile, and very easily reducible, though not precipitable, by the alkalis. *Berzelius* has designed it *Selenium*, and has published the details of his investigations of its properties in the Annals of Chemistry. 'This Selenium,' he says, 'is singularly scarce; 500 pounds of sulphur, burned in the manufactory at Fahlun, yielding only one-third of a gramme. How much less considerable, then, must it be than the pyrites from which that sulphur is extracted!' He has since found it forming about one-fourth of a very rare ore of silver and copper; which, on account of its odour, had been regarded as the ore of tellurium, and which was formerly extracted from a mine that is now abandoned, in the province of Smöland, in Sweden.

M. *Vauquelin*, in prosecuting the curious researches of *Gay-Lussac* with respect to the Prussic acid, has arrived at some interesting conclusions; among others, that, contrary to the opinion of his precursor, Prussian blue is a hydrocyanate; and that, when iron is exposed to water impregnated with cyanogen, there are formed, at once, cyanic acid, which dissolves a part of the iron, and hydrocyanic acid, which converts another part of it into blue.

During the continuation of their experiments on the mineral cameleon, MM. *Chevillot* and *Edwards* have ascertained that barytes and strontian are, like potass, capable of affording different sorts of cameleons, by uniting to the oxyd of manganese, and absorbing its oxygen.

The entire separation of nickel from cobalt, which seemed to defy the efforts of chemists, has at length been effected by *Laugier*. His method is to dissolve the mixture in ammonia, and precipitate by the oxalic acid; to re-dissolve the oxalate of nickel and cobalt, obtained by this operation, in concentrated ammonia; and to expose the solution to the air. 'In proportion as the ammonia exhales, oxalate of nickel, mixed with ammonia, is deposited. In consequence of repeated crystallizations, the liquid is deprived of all its nickel, and only a combination of oxalate of cobalt and ammonia remains, which is easily reduced; the small quantity of cobalt in the precipitate of nickel being completely separated from it by some successive solutions in ammonia.

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According to *Houtou-Labillardière*, the substance sublimed by heat from the muric acid is not, as *Tromsdorf* had alleged, a combination of the succinic and others, but a new acid, which he terms the *pyro-mucic*. When freed from the oil and the acetic acid with which it is blended, it easily crystallises, is white, inodorous, of an acid savour, and fuses at 130 of the centigrade thermometer. Another acid, termed the *Delphinic*, because it is procured from the oil of the dolphin, is announced by *Chevreuil*.

Meteorology. — The only notices under this head refer to a few observations by *Humboldt*, on the comparative uniformity of the changes of weather in the torrid zone; and to the report of a hurricane, and of an earthquake, in the West Indies, by *Moreau de Jonnès*.

Mineralogy and Geology. — M. *Beudant* has endeavoured to investigate the causes that determine a salt, of which the primitive molecules and nucleus have a constant form, to assume, in consequence of the accumulation of these molecules, according to different laws, a great diversity of secondary forms; and he has been led to infer, that the latter are derived from some of the circumstances under which the crystallization has been effected, particularly from the nature of the chemical mixtures existing in the solution, and the varieties of the proportions of the constituent principles of the substance crystallized. The application of this doctrine to the products of the laboratory, and to the phænomena of natural crystallization, promises to furnish a key to some of the secrets in the formation of both.

In a ravine of Mont d'Or, in Auvergne, mineralogists had long observed fragments of an apparently siliceous breccia; which M. *Cordier* has found, on analysis, to have a composition nearly analogous to that of the alum ore of La Tolfa; and he intimates an expectation of tracing its native repository, which might be worked with great advantage.

Some peasants in the department of the Lot, allured by the hope of getting at treasure concealed by the English, began to dig in some of the caverns about Breugue, and stumbled on a collection of fossil-bones of the horse, the rhinoceros, and a species of unknown deer, whose antlers bear some obscure resemblance to those of a young rein-deer. These interesting specimens have been deposited in the Royal Museum.

M. *Moreau de Jonnès*, who continues to direct his attention to the geology of the West Indies, has presented a memoir on the remarkable hill called the *Vauclain*, in Martinique: the remnant, as he conjectures, of the edge of an immense crater,

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crater, of which the bottom is now a fruitful and well cultivated valley. — According to the same author, the western part of Guadaloupe owes its origin to eruptions which have proceeded from four great sub-marine volcanic centres; and the eastern part is formed of a volcanic base, invested with an extensive stratification of shell lime-stone.

Botany. — The culture of the Date-tree forms the subject of a memoir by M. *Delisle*, who applied to the practical details when attached to the Egyptian expedition; and M. *Houtou-Labillardière* has corrected the former imperfect accounts of another sort of Palm-tree, denominated *Nipa*. — M. *Delisle*, moreover, recognizes in the *Ximenia Ægyptiaca*, Lin., the *Persea* of the antients, and assigns to it a new generic station, under the designation of *Balanites*.

M. *Humboldt*'s description of the *Cow-tree*, and the approaching completion of his and M. *Bonpland*'s botanical treasures, edited by Professor *Kunth*, with the splendid exertions of the latter, are announced with appropriate emphasis.

Zoology. — The Count de *Lacépède*, having observed the precision with which some paintings from Japan represented many known objects of natural history, has ventured to describe, on the same *authority*, several cetaceous animals, unknown to the zoologists of Europe; namely, two *Balenæ*, from *Balænoptera*, one *Physeter*, and one dolphin, thus adding eight species to the thirty-four which he had particularized in this class of animals.

The Chevalier *Cuvier* has presented to the Academy the head of a middle sized Orang-outang, recently transmitted to him from Calcutta; which contrasts with most of those that have been hitherto described of young subjects that had not changed their milk teeth. In the present specimen, the prominence of the snout and the retrocession of the forehead are more conspicuous, much resembling those of the Pongo of Wurmb, which was probably only an adult orang. The Chevalier has also exhibited the drawing of a Tapir, from Sumatra, taken from the living animal in the possession of the Marquess of Hastings; which differs from the American by the whitish colour of part of the back, while the rest of the body is of a very dark brown. M. *Diard*, who transmitted the drawing and a memoir accompanying it to the Secretary, has ascertained that this species inhabits not only Sumatra but also a part of India beyond the Ganges.

In a memoir by M. *Moreau de Jonnès*, we are informed that the animal called the *Mabouia of the walls*, in Martinique, is merely the *spine-tailed Gecko* of *Daudin*. From its repulsive aspect, it has inspired the inhabitants with vain ter-

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rors, and has been very imperfectly described by naturalists under the appellation of *Sputator*. Of another species of Gecko, namely, the *smooth* of *Daudin*, the author asserts that, when the tail is torn off, it is re-produced, *of larger dimensions*; which is contrary to most examples of the restoration of mutilated members.

Anatomy and Physiology. — M. *Geoffroy-Saint-Hilaire*, having collected into a separate form his ingenious anatomical memoirs on the respiratory system of animals, with a principal reference to its bony structure, has afforded to physiologists an opportunity of examining his particular views; some of which may possibly be reckoned questionable, while his illustrations may contribute to throw some new light on this wonderful department of the animal economy.

Mr. *Edwards*, in the course of his experiments on the respiration of frogs, has shewn that a high temperature of the water, in which these reptiles are immersed, is very unfriendly to their existence; and that they instantly perish when plunged into that fluid, heated to 42° of the centigrade thermometer.

Medicine and Surgery. — M. *Portal* has presented some observations on the pupillary membrane, or that cellular and vascular veil which closes over the pupil in the fœtus, and which usually gives way and disappears about the period of birth. He has reason to believe, however, that it sometimes remains entire, and occasions blindness, which may be removed by a very simple operation. In the same manner, he conjectures that deafness from birth may sometimes proceed from the want of the mucous discharge from the cavity of the tympanum.

Few of our medical readers require to be informed that Dr. *Avenbrügger*, of Vienna, had published a treatise on the mode of ascertaining diseased states of the chest, by percussion; which has been translated into French and enriched with judicious notes by *Corvisart*. — Dr. *Laennec*, of Paris, improving on the doctrines of *Stethoscopy*, has described his invention of a sort of funnel-shaped tube; by which sounds proceeding from the breast, and which differ according to the healthy or the diseased condition of that region, may be communicated to the ear, and thus enable ladies to dispense with too intimate an *auricular confession* to young practitioners. As we understand that Dr. *Laennec*'s curious work will be soon translated into English, we shall forbear from any farther notice of it at present.

M. *Chrétien*, an eminent physician of Montpellier, has successfully exhibited gold in schrophulous and syphilitic

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cases, and has ascertained that it is by no means an indolent agent, but must be used with particular caution.

M. *Darcet* has communicated a valuable memoir on protecting bronze-gilders from the fatal effects of the vapours of mercury, by introducing an ascensional current of air into the furnace, and substituting nitrate of mercury for the nitric acid.

The practice of *cupping* is announced with great formality; being, we suspect, somewhat novel in France. A really extraordinary case is thus related:

'One of the most surprizing and honourable operations in surgery is, without doubt, that which M. *Richerand* has performed, in removing a portion of the ribs and the pleura. The patient was himself a surgeon, and not ignorant of the danger of the remedy to which he had recourse: but he also knew that his disorder was otherwise incurable. He was attacked by a cancer on the internal surface of the ribs and pleura, which incessantly reproduced enormous fungous excrescences, to which steel and fire had been applied in vain. It became necessary, therefore, to expose the ribs, to saw two of them, to detach them from the pleura, and to remove all the cancerous portion of the last-mentioned membrane. Scarcely had an opening in it been effected, when the air, rushing into the chest, occasioned, during the first day, harassing pains and feelings of suffocation; and the surgeon could touch and see the heart through the glassy transparency of the pericardium, and ascertain the absolute insensibility of both. Copious serous discharges issued from the wound, while it remained open: but it gradually contracted by means of the adherence of the lungs to the pericardium, and of the fleshy granulations which supervened. The patient, in short, so completely recovered, that, on the twenty-seventh day after the operation, he could not resist the desire of repairing to the medical school, to see the fragments of the ribs which had been taken from him; and, in three or four days afterward, he returned home, and resumed his ordinary occupations.

'M. *Richerand*'s success is of so much the more importance that it may sanction, in other instances, recourse to operations which, according to the received notions, were deemed impracticable; and that it will be found a less formidable matter to penetrate into the interior of the chest. He even hopes that, by opening the pericardium, and introducing into it suitable injections, we may arrive at the cure of a disorder which has hitherto always proved mortal, namely, dropsy of that cavity.'

Rural Economy.—M. *Yvart*, the agriculturist, having been invited to communicate to the government his ideas on the melioration of the system of husbandry among the extinct volcanoes of Auvergne, repaired to the districts in question, and has reported his observations; which include many judicious suggestions relative to artificial meadows, irrigation, and various other improvements.

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Statistics. — The only article noticed under this title is a memoir on the population of the West India Islands, by *Moreau de Jonnès*, of which some of the principal results are shortly stated. If the calculations be accurate, the mortality is most severe on Europeans recently landed on these islands, 21 out of 100 dying in the first year among the English troops, and 33 in 100 among the French. The loss in the black regiments, enlisted in Africa, is only 3½ in 100: but that of the slaves is 17.

Memoirs.

Description of an Aggregation of Stones, observed in North Carolina in the United States of America, and known in the Country by the Denomination of the Natural Wall. By M. de Beauvois. — This problematical pile is situated between the sea and the Apallachian mountains, near Salisbury, in the county of Rowan; where the valley assumes an uneven, hilly, and sandy aspect. It is seated on a hillock, at the foot of which flows a little stream of water: its direction is from north to south; and its extremity on the back of the hillock appears to be already dilapidated. The stones of which it is composed vary in length, from about four to twelve inches: but all are of an elongated form, with four corners, or edges, attenuated at one of the ends, and having a small notch under the summit. They are laid horizontally, and constitute a mass eighteen or twenty inches thick, half covered in some places by the surface; which consists of a very fine sand, intermingled with small quartz-pebbles, and a great many minute particles of silver-coloured mica. This wall has been traced to the length of three hundred feet, and to the depth of twelve or fourteen, when the water prevented farther research. Each stone is invested with a layer of arenaceous, yellow, ochraceous, and adhering earth; and the interval separating them is occupied by a substance which, when fresh, resembles glazier's cement, except that it is marked by irregular, black, and ferruginous spots. Since 1796, when this singular structure was contemplated by M. de Beauvois, it has been visited by Messrs. *Mackorkle*, *Hall*, and *Newman*, who published their observations at New York, in 1801; and a similar mass, but on a smaller scale, has been remarked at a place six or eight miles from the former. Such of the American and French mineralogists as have examined the stones ascribe to them the characters of basalt, with the exception of M. *Brochant*; who rather hesitates as to their composition, and insinuates that they may be of the nature of hornblend rock. According to some, they have been put together by the hand of

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of man, at a very remote period; while others contend that they are the produce of nature. The object of such artificial mounds is not very apparent; nor is it easy to account for the accumulation of stones on two particular spots, where no others of the same description are to be found. Perhaps they are two remaining samples of a peculiar modification of submarine lava, other traces of which may be overwhelmed in sand, or swept away by denudations. Their great approximation to basaltic or augitic prisms, and the drawing which accompanies the description, would lead us to infer that they are portions of rudely crystallized veins.

On the Combination of Oxygen with Water, and on the ordinary Properties of oxygenated Water. By M. THÉNARD. —The subject of this memoir is perfectly distinct from the consideration of the solution of oxygen gas in common water, and refers to that fluid when impregnated with oxygen by the following process. Dissolve the deutoxyd of barium in hydrochloric acid, pouring into the solution a certain quantity of sulphuric acid; repeat this operation many times on the same liquor: then add the sulphat of silver, and next that of barytes; successively separating by the filter all the precipitates, until the water becomes charged with a great quantity of oxygen. The hydrochloric acid promptly dissolves the deutoxyd; whence results, apparently, hydrochlorate of barytes, and water, slightly oxygenated. The sulphuric acid precipitates the base of the hydrochlorate, and sets free the hydrochloric acid. The latter is then capable of acting on a fresh quantity of deutoxyd; so that, by precipitating anew the barytes by the sulphuric acid, the operation may be repeated three, four, &c. times; and water be consequently obtained, charged with hydrochloric acid, and with more or less of oxygen. The mode of action in the sulphat of silver is obvious; as it is employed for separating the hydrochloric acid, and replacing it by the sulphuric. The use of the barytes is not less manifest; since its base takes up all the sulphuric acid, and separates it from the liquor. From pure materials, therefore, employed in suitable proportions, will be obtained, as the ultimate result, water more or less oxygenated: but it is difficult, if not impossible, to obtain the deutoxyd of barium in a state of absolute purity; and many minute precautions, here well detailed, are requisite to insure success.

Having described the mode of procuring oxygenated water, the author next records, in a very satisfactory and circumstantial manner, the steps to which he had recourse in subjecting it to analysis, with the data and results of various experiments. The densest oxygenated water, which he was enabled to obtain, weighed 1,452; and his trials sufficed to con-

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convince him that the proportion of oxygen suspended in this case, to that which constituted the water itself, was nearly as 40 to 41. Hence, he reckoned himself warranted to infer that water, in its highest state of oxygenation, is a peroxyd of hydrogen; containing, relatively to the same quantity of hydrogen, twice as much oxygen as ordinary water; and that, as often as oxygenated water does not contain this quantity of oxygen, it may be regarded as a mixture of pure water and peroxyd of hydrogen.

M. THÉNARD then registers, with much patience and distinctness, the action of a great variety of metallic, earthy, vegetable, and animal substances on this newly discovered liquid. In most of the cases, its disoxygenation, or decomposition, seems to have taken place with more or less rapidity; sometimes with effervescence, and the disengagement of heat; and occasionally even with explosion. Six bodies, at least, are capable of producing the last-mentioned effect; namely, the oxyd of silver, the peroxyd of lead, the peroxyd of manganese, platinum, osmium, and silver: but two conditions are essential to the success of the experiment; for, first, these bodies must be used in the state of a dry and much attenuated powder; and, secondly, the liquid must be allowed to fall on them drop by drop. We learn, from other portions of the memoir, that certain modifications of the metals, &c. exercise a feeble and tardy influence on the compound in question, or even seem to be quite inert in this respect. The new oxyds obtainable through the intervention of the peroxyd of hydrogen, independently of the deutoxyd of barium, (which may, moreover, be procured by the direct union of barytes with oxygen,) are five; namely, deutoxyd of strontium, deutoxyd of calcium, deutoxyd of zinc, tritoxyd of copper, and oxyd of nickel. — As the numerous phænomena recited in this elaborate memoir are not reconcileable with our present ideas of chemical affinities, the author presumes that they must be attributed to some physical cause; and most probably to the agency of the electric fluid, since we cannot legitimately deduce them from our knowlege of caloric, light, or magnetism.

The length to which the present article has already extended forbids us to enter into more ample details of this paper: but the professional chemist will naturally have recourse to the original; while the uninitiated would scarcely thank us for continuous pages of technical statements. We cannot drop the pen, however, without bearing our testimony of admiration to the operative talent of M. THÉNARD, and to that unwearied diligence which accompanies his multiplied investigations.

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ART. IV. *Essai Géologique*, &c.; *i.e.* A Geological Essay on Scotland; by A. BOUÉ, M.D., Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, of the Wernerian Society, and of the Society of Natural History at Geneva. With Two Maps, and Seven Lithographic Plates. 8vo. pp. 530. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 14s. sewed.

IN the northern regions of our island, the mountainous character of the country, and the frequent intersection of the strata by deep ravines, present many favourable opportunities of surveying their composition and alternations, and of noting their earthy products to a considerable depth. The extent and the multiplied indentations of the sea-coast are, likewise, friendly to the researches of the geologist; and much important information may be derived from the numerous coal-fields and mining districts. Availing themselves of these inviting facilities, Williams, Jameson, Macculloch, and some of the learned contributors to the Transactions of the Geological and Wernerian Societies, have gradually delineated many of the more prominent features of the rocks and stratification of Scotland.

Combining the results of their previous labours with his own opportunities of attendance on Professor Jameson's prelections, of intimate intercourse with that distinguished individual, and of personal observation during his excursions, the present author has, with singular penetration and sagacity, exhibited a connected view of his subject, under general divisions; prefacing his geological analysis by a sketch of the situation, extent, and natural partitions of the country, epitomized from Playfair's Geographical and Statistical Description, and other authorities. He then dissects, with apparent accuracy, the several geological districts, as they are characterized by the prevalence of granite, gneiss, porphyry, chloritic and quartzose rocks, argillaceous schistus, grauwacké, red sand-stone, including conglomerate, trap, and felspatose rocks, sand-stone of the coal-formation, lime-stone, sand-stone posterior to the red, volcanic products, and alluvial soil. In his account of the actual distribution of these respective materials, he has generally abstained from the language of theory; restricting his statements to what he conceives to be the expression of existing facts. If, on a few occasions, he takes leave to dissent from the opinions of Dr. Macculloch, and some others, he does it with respect and hesitation. His exposition of Scotish geology is, on the whole, the most extensive outline that has yet been traced of that interesting topic: but, as it proceeds in the form of an unbroken

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unbroken series, and has been professedly drawn up more for the information of the continental than of the British reader, we shall forbear from noticing it with that minuteness which, had we not already adverted to the observations of his precursors, it might have claimed at our hands.

The author takes also a glance at the geology of England and Ireland, and even of more remote countries, in which analogous appearances have been traced; and we should not omit to remark that he frequently alludes to the identity of constitution and aspect, which he has observed to exist between our northern basaltic rocks and the lavas of the extinct volcanoes of Auvergne.

In his attempt to account for the appearances which he has so patiently registered, Dr. Boué sets out with assigning the supposed causes of waste and degradation which may have operated on the geological structure of Scotland, subsequently to the formation of its mineral masses. To the great current of the Atlantic ocean, and to the violence and excentricity of its tides, he partly attributes the obvious symptoms of separation and decay on its western shores, and the existence of the Hebridean archipelago: but accidental dislocations and disruptions, occasioning vacancies which were filled up by the waters of the ocean, may also, he insinuates, have occurred from the physical mechanism of the earth. At all events, the coincidence of stratification, in widely separated parts of the globe, seems to point to a former very extensive junction of the solid portions of the earth's surface; although we may be unable to make any adequate estimate of the forces which tore it asunder, until we have attained to a much more perfect knowlege of astronomy, physics, chemistry, and geology. Aware of the insufficiency of either the Neptunian or the volcanic theory to explain the origin of existing phenomena, the author takes a deliberate survey of the waters and continents of our planets, with reference to their relative extent and bearings; of the combined effects of various modifications of the liquid elements; and of volcanic fires: assigning to the latter a much more ample range than it has hitherto obtained from the partizans of the Wernerian school; and thus constructing, at considerable length, and with much ingenious argumentation, a theory of his own, which professes only to indicate what are the portions of the known surface of the earth that have received their origin from water, and what are those which have derived it from fire. This able and honest attempt to effect a *compromise* may fail to conciliate either of the contending parties, but may not, on that account, be less remote from truth.

Having

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Having thus cursorily reported the general object and plan of this highly respectable publication, it remains to mention that the author's manner is that of a strict logician, sternly adhering to his subject, and expanding his observations into a volume of which the monotonously didactic tone will doubtless as effectually repel the general reader, as it will attract the enthusiast in geology. Of the choice repast prepared for the latter, we are unwilling to anticipate the details.

The maps are unfortunately executed on too minute a scale: but the lithographic sketches sufficiently illustrate the passages to which they refer. The list of *errata* is rather numerous; yet more attention has been bestowed on the orthography of obscure and local names, than we are accustomed to expect from a foreign press.

ART. V. *Histoire de la Révolution, &c.; i. e.* A History of the Revolution which overturned the Roman Republic, and induced the Establishment of the Empire. By M. NOUGARÈDE, Baron DE FAYET. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 18s.

THE object of this work is as fully developed by its title-page as by its substance. M. NOUGARÈDE has not affected to trace the momentous and mighty event, of which he treats, through any other than those simple details and familiar narratives, which are accessible to all readers who are competent to consult the text of the few historians that flourished between the periods of the civil wars and the despotism of Augustus. His margin, indeed, is not crowded with references: but the chief authorities, by whose guidance he has travelled through this interesting portion of the Roman annals, are writers to whom various degrees of credit have been assigned; none of them worthy of implicit assent, and one or two of them, Dion in particular, biassed by the most bigoted prejudice, and inflamed with the most virulent partiality. A philosophical historian would have been cautious as he proceeded with such guides, and have expended some degree of learned research in weighing and balancing the proportion and amount of their credibility. A truly valuable part of the great work of Mr. Gibbon is that which he occasionally devotes to this important branch of criticism. He frequently adopts the fact, indeed, in his text, and then destroys its authority in his notes: but, in spite of this inconsistency, while modern literature can boast of nothing similar or second to his stupendous undertaking, the whole compass of language cannot produce such a mass of useful investigation into his-

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torical evidence, as that which is furnished by the acute inquisition and severe discernment displayed by him in the choice and selection of his materials.

Nothing of this kind seems to have occupied the solicitude of M. NOUGARÈDE, Baron DE FAYET, when he condescended to write the history which is now under our examination. He is satisfied with the track marked out by all antecedent compilers, along which he trudges at a quiet and sedate pace; seldom turning aside to philosophize, or endeavouring to trace to a few simple and primary causes the great events which he illustrates. This entire absence of the spirit of generalization has the effect of giving to his work the semblance of being a portion only of a longer and more consecutive history of Rome; instead of being, as we hoped to find it, an historical treatise, confined to the exclusive purpose of exemplifying the moral and political circumstances which produced at Rome the transition from a free to a despotic government. Although in fact little remained to be done after the comprehensive and admirable disquisition of *Montesquieu*, who in one chapter has summed up the whole gradation of causes which relaxed the severity of the Roman manners, and rendered the citizens of Rome unfit for their republican institutions; yet we apprehend that an ample field was opened for a more detailed and minute exposition of those events, than could reasonably be expected from the rapidity and compendiousness with which the subject was surveyed by the masterly genius of the President, and sketched with the quick but glowing touches of his pen. In such a work, however, we should have expected a rigid adherence to its object; the undeviating selection of those incidents only which contributed to the series of impulses that urged on the revolution; and the anxious exclusion, as it were, from the canvass, of every thing which tends to divert the eye from the main subject of the picture. It is evident that, in this kind of historical disquisition, the regularity and connection of history might be wanting: but a regular and connected recital would be wholly foreign from the character and purport of a philosophical treatise. Reflection, which derives from the crowded events of history a fund of maxims and principles, and, having been habituated to range those events not in their dry and chronological order but by their permanent classifications and immutable analogies, is competent by a single glance to select the single and insulated fact, or agent, that has been the most powerful and efficient in deciding the destiny of a nation;—the familiar knowlege of every form of polity as it existed in its rude and mis-shapen infancy, to its

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most adult and ripened vigour; — the habit of comparing, analyzing, and again re-combining all that history had taught or experience gathered up; — these, which were eminently the gifts of *Montesquieu*, would be requisite for the perfect execution of the task.

With the aid of diligence, however, and well-cultivated talents, an historical work, conceived and finished in this spirit, might even at this time of day have been expected from a writer who undertakes to illustrate any portion of a history so familiar to us as that of Rome, though he might feel a modest despair of bringing to it the extraordinary endowments to which we have alluded. France has not been wanting in writers who have taken up detached periods of history, and illustrated their great and characteristic incidents by tracing them to their primary and almost latent causes. *Voltaire*, although as a general historian he has neither acquired nor deserved a solid reputation, has been successful in one or two of his historical essays; and they bear ample testimony at least to his skill and discernment in the selection of the few leading events which influenced the fortunes of particular reigns, and determined the character of particular periods: — but France never produced a work of this kind more comprehensive and more compendious, more correct in its narrative, and more philosophical in its characters, than *D'Anquetil's Esprit de la Ligue.* In that production, all the facts are so skilfully selected and so judiciously combined, that they conspire as if by common consent to elucidate the fatal intrigues and gloomy policy of the times; radiating as it were from different points, but terminating in one common centre. All the workings of the dreadful passions which presided over the dark and cruel counsels of the *Guises*, and burst out in the bloodiest massacres and persecutions, are in that little book unfolded with singular exactness; and no event is frigidly dismissed (as the Baron DE FAYET sometimes dismisses the most momentous incidents on which the fate of Roman liberty was suspended,) without a philosophical comment, not forced and superinduced, but suggested by the character and excited by the spirit of the transaction.

This is the genuine style of history; and it was this that hinted to Lord Bacon to designate Tacitus as "the philosophical historian." He might have justly applied the same distinction to Thucydides, to Livy, and with some little modification to Polybius. The historical spirit, however, seems now to be extinct. *Frederick Schlegel*, one of the most ingenious of modern critics, accounts for the decline in England, by attributing it to a cause which reflects but little honour on the state

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of philosophy among us. We may be inclined to shut our ears and our eyes to the mortifying fact: but we fear, after all, that it is indisputably true. Yet it is still more applicable to France; where the fermentation of all sorts of opinions, hazarded by every experimental sciolist, has not yet subsided into settled habitudes of thinking; and where a disheartening and frigid system of materialism has long taken possession of the literary mind of too large a part of the community.

"The art of historical writing is evidently," says *Schlegel*, "quite on the decline in England; and one great cause of this decay consists, I imagine, in the want of any stable and satisfactory philosophy. Without some rational and due conceptions of the fate and destiny of man, it is impossible to form any just and consistent opinion even concerning the progress of events, the development of times, and the fortunes of nations. In every situation, history and philosophy should be as much as possible united. Philosophy, if altogether separated from history, and destitute of the spirit of criticism, which is the result of the union to which I have alluded, can be nothing more than a wild existence of sect and formality. History, also, without the animating spirit of philosophy, is merely a dead heap of useless materials, devoid of internal unity, proper purpose, or worthy result. The want of satisfactory and sane views and principles is no where more conspicuous than in some histories recently produced in England, and more recently among ourselves."*

That we may not appear unjust towards M. NOUGARÈDE, we shall give a slight abstract of his work, accompanied by a few citations as specimens of the style and spirit of his narrative. For the causes which led to the establishment of the imperial despotism, we think that he might have ascended much higher than the usurpation of Julius Cæsar, and the civil distractions which more immediately prepared the Roman mind to submit to its yoke. Yet we entirely acquiesce in the few reflections which escape the author respecting the impolitic and ill-considered conspiracy that terminated in his death.

'It is a revolution,' he observes, 'the most memorable of those which at different periods have subverted antient forms of government, and is therefore by so much the more fertile of those great lessons which constitute the interesting and useful portions of history. It exhibits that haughty power, which imagined that it had recovered its liberty by the murder of Julius Cæsar, desiring no other fruit from that dreadful experiment than a tyranny still more odious: the blood of her most illustrious citizens flowing in

* Lectures on the History of Literature, by *Frederick Schlegel*. Paris edition.

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rivers *within* her walls, and extending *without* over the vast theatre of her conquests; while famine, devastation, and all the combined evils of civil and foreign war, gathered over her head in a few years the intolerable calamities with which the disastrous glory of her arms had been for many centuries overwhelming other nations. Such, in one word, was the extremity of her misfortunes, that they reduced her to the necessity of promoting the views of that very Octavius who had cruelly avenged the death of his father by adoption, assisting his final triumph, giving him as a pledge of submission the surname of Augustus, and consecrating by an almost voluntary assent that usurpation which, while it was destined to throw oblivion over so many crimes, was moreover to consummate the fall of the republic and the establishment of imperial power.' (Vol. i. p. 2.)

It is very true that the Romans were not gainers by the assassination of Cæsar: but the event has descended to after-times as a memorable lesson of the impolicy of tyrannicide, which has received confirmation from many signal instances in modern history. It is remarkable, however, that the most enlightened philosophers and statesmen of antient times never questioned its moral lawfulness, but treated it as a mere matter of expediency, of times and seasons. Even Cicero, who had the most luminous mind of that period, dissuaded the murder of the Dictator not as a violation of moral or natural law, but as dangerous and unseasonable at the period when the conspiracy was formed. In his second Philippic, he justifies the deed by every argument which his ingenuity suggested, and sanctions it by every example which history furnished. — Still, however, it is not quite so clear that any other chance of regaining her freedom remained to Rome. Every act of magistracy was really if not nominally exercised by Cæsar: all the essential functions of the senate were concentered in his person; and the senate itself was filled with his creatures by that arbitrary edict, in which with a stroke of his pen he added three hundred of plebeian origin to its number, and thus for ever destroyed its form and constitution. He was indeed slow and timid in his advances, and carried on a long coquetry with the sovereignty which he affected: but every day saw his doubt and caution diminish; and at the very crisis when that dreadful act of mistaken virtue took place, his adherents were prepared to confer on him all that his ambition coveted. No doubt, the intermediate ills, which preceded the accession of Augustus to the supreme power, were the fruit of that short-sighted and premature enterprize: but in all probability, had Cæsar lived to complete the well-compacted edifice of arbitrary power of which he had already laid the foundations, it would have descended to Augustus as his inheritance; and he would have

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been master of the world and its destinies, unrestrained by that salutary lesson which so long prescribed bounds to tyranny, and impressed a salutary admonition on the memory of the son by the tragical end of the father. Accordingly, Augustus affected a reverence for the republican institutions. He left the semblance of popular power to the public assemblies, and appeared only in the character of a subordinate functionary of the senate; and, while he took especial care to secure the unlimited command of the army, he studiously avoided all the external signs and decorations of kingly power. Such was the game played by this crafty usurper. Even Tiberius began with a timid and dissembling policy. "*Nam Tiberius*," says Tacitus, in words which are volumes, "*cuncta per consules incipiebat, tanquam vetere republicâ, et* ambiguus imperandi."

The present author concludes his first book with the memorable tragedy of the Ides of March. One or two incidents, while they strongly mark the lofty and unsuspecting generosity of Brutus, shew that he was of all others the most unfitted by character and habit for a conspirator.

'Many other measures were planned, and Decius Brutus undertook to assemble all his gladiators in the theatre of Pompey: but these precautions appeared to Brutus almost superfluous. He was convinced that, immediately after the death of the tyrant, the consent and union of the good citizens would be sufficient to re-establish the republic; and this conviction suggested to him an act of generosity which was followed by the most serious consequences. Cassius had proposed that Antony and Lepidus should be sacrificed with Cæsar, because all the advantages of the death of the tyrant would be lost if they left chiefs to encourage his faction. Antony was an object of caution from his influence with the army, and the consular authority with which he was invested. Lepidus also might become exceedingly dangerous. The troops encamped beneath the walls of Rome were under his orders; and he had the entire disposal of two provinces, and the four legions which had been appointed to defend them. The conspirators immediately assented to this proposal, but Brutus refused his sanction. He said that these unjust murders would render their enterprize odious, and that it would be attributed to a plan for reviving the faction of Pompey; that the partizans of Cæsar would be wholly crippled after his fall; that it was not absurd even to hope that the chief of them might be enrolled in the cause of the republic; that Antony had not long since entered himself into a conspiracy with Trebonius against the life of Cæsar; and that the sentiments and character of Lepidus ought to inspire still more confidence. Brutus persisted so firmly in these opinions, that his friends were obliged to yield to them, and only took precautions against Antony, whose audacity and vigour alarmed them.' (Vol. i. p. 85.)

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Book II. is a recapitulation of the Roman affairs from the death of Cæsar to the hostilities decreed against Antony; a measure which, as it was procured by the personal influence and the powerful eloquence of Cicero, inspired his party with a faint and fallacious hope of the restoration of the republic. It is ludicrous, however, to observe the Baron DE FAYET delaying the progress of his narration and suspending the expectation of his readers with the idle and ridiculous stories, propagated by flattery and folly, which Suetonius has preserved concerning the prodigies that preceded and attended the birth of Octavius. The dignity of consul seems to have pointed out Antony as the natural head of the Cæsarian party; and his military talents, and some degree of eloquence, had rendered him the idol of the army: but he was too much the slave of his own passions to aspire to the place occupied by Cæsar. His vices, and the indolence incident to those who are devoted to self-gratification, had no other impediments intervened, were insuperable obstacles to his becoming the master of the world. — Next to Antony, Lepidus was the most accredited chief of the party. His vanity was unbounded, and his ambition immoderate: he conceived vast projects which he wanted talent to execute; and hence his connection with Antony, whose promptitude and vigour rendered him an useful associate and powerful instrument. Lepidus proposed violent resolves, but Antony counselled measures of craft and dissimulation. The great stroke of Antony's policy, however, was that by which he secured the veterans, and obtained possession of Cæsar's papers, as well as of the immense treasure which the Dictator had deposited in the temple of Ops. Brutus was so far cajoled by the artifices of this crafty demagogue, as to propose to him terms of accommodation: but it does honour to the character and consistency of Cicero, that he uniformly protested against these disgraceful negotiations with a traitor. The party of the conspirators, however, though almost besieged in the Capitol, hourly acquired accessions of strength, and were supported by that numerous part of the citizens who dreaded the recurrence of civil war. Cicero powerfully and successfully contended for a decree of general amnesty; and Antony and Lepidus, having vainly attempted a popular movement, reluctantly assented to the humane proposition.

The reconciliation with the conspirators (two children of Lepidus and Antony having been sent to the Capitol as hostages) produced only a deceitful calm; and the adherents of Brutus were lulled by the appearance of tranquillity into a fatal improvidence: but the obsequies of Cæsar, celebrated

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with theatrical pomp, and the inflammatory harangues of Antony, which roused the populace to fury, opened their eyes to his perfidy. The result was the departure of the conspirators from Rome, which left him opportunity to confirm and secure his influence. The senate having ratified the acts of Cæsar, it was under this pretext that Antony brought the whole republic to auction *; for every measure which was subservient to his interest received its sanction as an act which had been decreed or determined by Cæsar. By virtue of this fraud, Lepidus obtained the supreme pontificate; an act of Cæsar having been forged, transferring the right of election from the people to the sacerdotal college. The most fatal blow, however, which the party of Brutus received, resulted from the snare laid by Lepidus for Sextus the son of Pompey; who, by means of an immense military force which still adhered to him in Spain, would have brought to the republican interest an irresistible weight, but who was induced to disband his force and proceed to Rome. Brutus fell into the deception, and approved of the recall of Sextus as a measure calculated to tranquillize the Commonwealth: but Cicero, whose views of the real tendency of that intrigue were consistent and clear, laments it in a letter to Atticus, and anticipates its consequences. "*Sextum scutum abjicere nolebam*" was his exclamation, and his predictions were soon verified.

The blindness of Brutus and Cassius was little short of fatuity. Having complied with Antony's recommendation, they repaired to Rome, and gave orders to their growing forces at Antium to disperse: but, having learned while they were on their road that the city was filled with troops, and that the veterans breathed the fiercest menaces against the conspirators, they retraced their footsteps. When Brutus and Cassius were deprived of their provinces, no obstacle to the fullest consummation of the ambitious projects of Antony seemed to remain: but the sudden appearance at Rome of young Octavius, the adopted son and heir of Cæsar, whose journey from Apollonica had been a triumphal march, opened his eyes to the precariousness of his fortunes. The memorable interview of Octavius with Antony, their quarrel, and their reconciliation, are well known to every student of Roman history. It seems that Brutus still persisted in pacific councils, till the measures of Antony and Octavius began to shew that they had thrown off the very semblance of acting as the protectors of public liberty: but he was at last unde-

* An expression of Velleius Paterculus.

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ceived; and he resolved with Cassius to depart from Italy. The hollow friendship of Antony and Octavius soon ended in an open rupture, and brought about a singular posture of public affairs. Cicero, the avowed friend of the assassinators of Cæsar, had, in consequence of a negotiation with Octavius, openly declared for him:—Antony was marching against Decimus Brutus, who had raised his standard in Cis-Alpine Gaul, and whom the will of Cæsar had made joint heir with himself;—while Octavius, at the head of a large army, was hastening to succour the murderer of his father. At the instance of Cicero, Antony was declared by the senate to be a public enemy, and orders were issued for the levying and enrolment of adequate forces to support Decimus, whom Antony was besieging at Mutina. New discussions, however, arose: the friends of Antony obtained a temporary success; and the measures decreed by the senate were reduced to a deputation to Antony, for the purpose of notifying the mandate of that assembly to desist from his enterprize, and to announce to Decimus the resolutions that had been voted in his favour. Antony's reception of the deputies, however, silenced the voices which had been raised in his defence. The ninth Philippic of Cicero successfully advised vigorous measures, inspired zeal into the party who adhered to the senate, and augmented his own ascendancy in the state. The new consul Pansa marched at the head of a numerous army to the relief of Mutina*; and, the two consular armies having joined that of Octavius, it was resolved to attempt the succour of Decimus by a pitched battle.

The third book is occupied with the celebrated siege of Mutina; an event which, in the then shape of military science, has been considered, both with respect to the works carried on by Antony and the defence sustained by Decimus Brutus, as the master-piece of antient warfare. After the raising of the siege by Antony, and the decree of the senate proclaiming him a public enemy, the author judiciously points out the series of impolitic measures which were adopted by the party of Brutus. In their senseless infatuation, as soon as the news of the victory obtained by Hirtius was announced, they inferred that the war was at an end; and their blind confidence contributed in no slight degree to the calamities which were already at no great distance. He who wishes to see the

* We have some reason to complain of the adoption of the modern for the antient names of places by the present author. Thus, for Mutina, he reads Modena; for Anxur, Terracina; and for Bononia, Bologna.

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intrigues of the time clearly detected, and the rash and ill-considered conduct of the republicans completely exposed, must consult the letters of Cicero to Atticus and his other friends. Of these blunders, the crafty and calculating Octavius took the due advantage. Lepidus had already perfidiously joined Antony; and Octavius, by refusing to assist Decimus in the pursuit of him after the siege, by negotiating with Ventidius instead of overpowering him as he might have done by superior numbers, and by his permission to the officers and soldiers whom he had taken prisoners to rejoin their standard, had very intelligibly given him to understand how little indisposed he was to make common cause with him against the senate and the people. The error which was attended with the most fatal consequences was the obstinate refusal of Brutus, after his successes in Greece, to comply with the decree of the senate, and the opinion of Cicero, urged with the most vehement importunities, to return with his army to Italy. That great statesman was so earnestly bent on this measure, that he had also sent a private deputation to Brutus to the same effect: — but it was in vain. We cannot forbear to cite in this place the author's statement of this mysterious procedure of Brutus.

'While Brutus was pursuing barren glory among the rocks of Thrace, Cicero was waiting in the most dreadful inquietude the result of his efforts to bring him to Rome. He received his refusal, expressed in two letters, concerning which much has been said by various authors. To judge of them with impartiality, we must take care not to consider them apart from the circumstances under which they were written.

'After the fruitless mission of the deputies of the senate, Cicero attempted with no better success the mediation of Atticus. At last, he sent Messala to Brutus, with a letter explanatory of the conduct which he was pursuing. It was with great reluctance that he took this step, being much displeased with the severity and the tone of superiority which rendered the reproaches of Brutus intolerable: but he sacrificed all these considerations to the urgent interests of the republic. In this letter he developed the motives of the leading measures which he had urged. "I dare not explain myself farther," he added, "for it will be too evident that I was less influenced by gratitude than policy. Besides, is it not enough to remind you how urgently your arrival in Italy with the army is required? All are anxiously expecting you. All will flock around you, the very moment that you appear. Make haste, in the name of the gods! Every thing, you know, depends on opportunity, and promptitude in seizing it." — Brutus replied only by fresh reproaches; not condescending even to justify his disobedience and that of Cassius to the orders of the senate. — Such was the deplorable condition of affairs. Those who were in the act of fighting for the cause of the republic affected

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affected an entire independence of the authority which the laws had appointed to direct it.' (Vol. i. p. 283.)

The series of events which made Octavius master of Rome, and led to the formation of the infamous triumvirate, is related with great fidelity and spirit. It was at the bloody conference of these men that the list of proscription was framed, which poured out, to glut the ambition of the monsters who were now sovereigns of the world, the best and purest blood of Rome. It was there that they exchanged, with mercantile coolness, friend against friend, and relative against relative; trafficking, says Plutarch, in the most illustrious lives of the republic. — The sickening detail of the proscriptions is rapidly presented by the author; who naturally pauses at the death of Cicero:

'The greater part of these calamities inspired chiefly private sorrow: but it became universal when the rumour was spread of the tragical end of Cicero. This illustrious man had retired to his villa at Tusculum, when the satellites, whom the triumvirs had dispatched to Rome immediately after the conference, arrived there. His brother and his nephew had left him and returned to Rome, but they were there overtaken by the proscription, and perished. Cicero had twice embarked, but had been driven back by contrary winds. Not being able to sustain the motion of the vessel, he landed near his Formian villa, which was only a mile from the coast. Equally wearied of life and of flight, "I will die," said he, "in that country which has more than once been indebted to me for its safety." Early in the morning, his slaves informed him that they had seen in the neighbourhood soldiers who were in pursuit of him; when, overcome by their entreaties, he placed himself in his litter, and proceeded to the sea. The soldiers arrived at his house shortly afterward, conducted by Popilius Læna, whom Cicero had once saved from a capital charge, and who had solicited the office of murdering his benefactor. They forced the doors, and made an ineffectual search: but, that no feature of horror might be wanting to the deed, a young freedman of his brother Quintus, whom Cicero had himself taken pains to instruct in literature, discovered to his assassins the road which he had taken.

'The slaves who were carrying Cicero, and those who escorted his litter, when they heard the hasty steps of his pursuers, prepared to arm in his defence: but Cicero forbade them to resist; and, advancing his head, his chin supported by his left hand according to his custom, he cast a firm and calm look on the soldiers. These men, ferocious as they were, could not bear the fixed and steady gaze of so illustrious a character, and turned away their eyes, while the centurion Herennius severed his head from his body. Popilius ordered him also to cut off the hands which had written the Philippics, that he might be himself the bearer of so agreeable a present to Antony. — The triumvir was at table with Fulvia,

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Fulvia, and Popilius was received with acclamations of savage joy. Fulvia drew a golden bodkin from her hair, seized the bleeding head, and, opening the mouth, pierced the tongue, now no longer animated. Antony exclaimed with vehemence that he was already satisfied, and that he was willing to put a stop to the proscription. He then counted out 250,000 denarii to Popilius, and sent the head and hands of Cicero to be exposed in the Forum, on the same tribune where his eloquence had so often made his rivals despair, and the enemies of his country tremble.' —

'This last epoch of the life of Cicero forms his grand title to the respect of posterity. The republic was wholly defenceless, when he gave it new chances of surviving; and, although abandoned by fortune at last, she broke her fall by means of his noble efforts, and did not perish without glory. Such has justly been the origin of the homage which every age has rendered to Cicero. History raises her voice into paneygric, to devote to the execration of posterity the murder of this illustrious individual; and to proclaim that the human race will be extinguished before his splendid and pure reputation can be effaced from its memory.' (Vol. i. p. 336.)

The Baron evidently alludes, in this passage, to that noble eulogium which burst from the heart and bosom of Paterculus, when he recited this mournful catastrophe: "*Nihil tamen egisti, Marci Antoni,*" &c. &c.

In the fourth book, the writer considers the events which preceded the battle of Philippi, and terminates it with the death of Brutus. The empire of the world was now completely transferred to the triumvirs. — The fifth and six books contain a summary of the intrigues and death of Fulvia, the rupture of Octavius and Antony, — imperfectly healed by the treaty of Brundusium and the marriage of Antony with Octavia, sister of Octavius, — the war carried on by their joint arms against the younger Pompey, and the death of that formidable rival. M. Nougarède has thrown an interest over the character of Octavia which we cannot decidedly pronounce to be due to her; his margin being unfortunately in this and other more important passages of his history wholly barren of authority or citation. We insert the passage:

'Octavia was the daughter of Octavius by his first marriage; and her beauty, which by the confession of Antony himself, was much superior to that of Cleopatra, was the least of the gifts which she had so profusely shared from nature. The splendid qualities of her mind were tempered by an exquisite judgment, and a cool and sedate reason: while the dignity of her sentiments was softened by her modest virtues, and the unalterable sweetness of her disposition. Tenderly beloved by her brother, she used her influence over him by urging him to generous actions. Vi-

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nius had been saved from the proscription by the address of his wife, who had made him pass for dead, and by the fidelity of his freedman, who gave him an asylum; when Octavia, having introduced them all into the presence of Octavius, represented in such powerful terms the generous devotion of the wife and the servant, that she obtained the pardon of the husband, and the title of a Roman knight for the freedman. — Octavius urged the marriage from views of policy: Antony was influenced merely by the impetuosity of his desires; and Octavia alone was guided by a sentiment worthy of her noble character, — the hope of being the pledge of peace. This idea had been participated by the negotiators of the treaty, and by the Roman people; and the senate only complied with the universal wish, when they dispensed with the law which prohibited a widow from marrying again within ten months after the death of her first husband. The ceremony was celebrated with the most brilliant rejoicings: but they attracted less notice than the interesting Octavia, in whom the hopes of all were united. She appeared fully to justify those expectations. Her pure and unaffected charms effaced all recollections of Cleopatra; and the sentiments which she inspired, though new to Antony, were by no means foreign to his disposition, which was naturally generous, and he surrendered himself to them with transport.' (Vol. ii. p. 84.)

The charms of Cleopatra, however, had not yet lost their empire over the fickle and voluptuous Antony; and, after his reconciliation at Tarentum with Octavius, he left Octavia suddenly, and for ever. In Syria, where he was preparing the war against the Parthians, he was rejoined by Cleopatra; who extorted from the unresisting prodigality of her paramour gifts and cessions of territory which spread a general indignation through the army. A faint ray of common sense flashed across his eyes for a short interval; and, previously to his expedition against the Parthians, he sent her into Egypt. The author well relates the evils which Antony encountered in his eastern expedition, and the fatal improvidence into which his unhappy passion betrayed him:

'The disastrous retreat from Media, far from opening the eyes of Antony to the abyss which his infatuation was digging beneath his feet, seemed only to render it the more impervious. Scarcely had he entered Laodicæa, when he dispatched a light vessel to invite Cleopatra to meet him at a place situated between Berytus and Sidon, on a part of the coast that was but little frequented. He delayed not to go thither himself, and appeared only to have been detained at Laodicæa to accomplish the secret designs of Octavius, by issuing the fatal order which sacrificed the life of the last branch of the family of Pompey. In this obscure corner of Syria, the conqueror of Philippi, equally insensible to the memory of his former glory and the humiliation of his recent disasters,

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astera, wasted his time in sighing for the vessel which was to bring the fatal object of his delirium. Gaming, wine, and debauchery could not amuse his spirits; and often in the midst of the banquet, leaving the table to his guests, he would wander along the shore, to cast his impatient looks over the ocean. At last, Cleopatra appeared.' —

'He then proceeded with her to Alexandria, where he forgot all his reverses.' (Vol. ii. p. 223.)

In his seventh book, the writer traces with great fidelity, from Dion, Appian, and Paterculus, the progress by which Octavius rose to the supreme power. After his victory at Naulochus, which left Italy without an enemy, he returned triumphantly to Rome; where he was received at the gates by the different orders of the state, each crowned with flowers. Having, in compliance with an antient law, which forbade the entrance of a General with his army into the city, addressed the people on the outside of the walls, he confined himself to a modest relation of his exploits, gave an account of all the acts of his administration, and congratulated himself on having attained the end of his labours by the termination of the civil wars. His whole conduct at Rome aimed at popularity. He accepted only a few of the honours decreed him by the senate; declared that the reign of the laws was established; invited the magistrates to resume their functions; and asserted that, after the success of the Parthian expedition, he would propose to his colleague (Lepidus had already been stripped of *his* share) the abdication of their triumvirate: taking care, at the same time, to draw all possible advantage from Antony's imprudences, and particularly from his disastrous retreat from Media. He also extended the power and confirmed the security of the empire by the conquest of Dalmatia and Moesia. The people, fatigued with a long continuance of calamity, turned their eyes to him who had united personal and civil security to the other blessings of peace; and, by a decree which passed unanimously, they conferred on him the tribunitian power. He was, moreover, indefatigable in the correction of abuses. — Much of the amelioration of the disposition of Octavius, who had hitherto appeared only as a crafty and bloody tyrant, has been justly attributed by historians to the beneficent influence of Mecœnas; who advised him to proclaim edicts of amnesty, and awakened in his breast a taste for letters and the arts. Agrippa, also, is not undeserving of a considerable share of panegyric for this salutary work.

After the rupture between Antony and Octavius, and the arrival of the former with his army at Ephesus, the latter, who

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found himself anticipated, and who had not yet collected all his means of defence, was considerably alarmed: but all his apprehensions vanished, when he heard that Cleopatra had arrived at Ephesus to join his infatuated colleague. The folly of Antony, says Plutarch, continued to urge him along; for the gods had decreed that the world should be subject to the authority of Octavius. After the wicked repudiation of Octavia, war actually existed between the colleagues, and Antony was abandoned by his warmest friends and partizans. The hopes of the republican party were kept alive by the promised dissolution of the triumvirate: but, whatever might be the event of the present contest, it was clear that success or miscarriage must equally terminate in their common servitude. — Respecting Asinius Pollio, whom Horace has celebrated in one of his odes, and whom Virgil has immortalized in the splendid predictions of the Eclogue which is inscribed with his name, we have here the following notice:

'Of the imprudent procrastinations of Antony, Octavius availed himself to finish his preparations. He particularly desired to obtain the adherence of Pollio, to give greater weight to his cause, and to decide those who were still wavering. Pollio had for some time been alienated from Antony, but he had wholly retired from public life. He considered that he had lost the goodwill of Octavius by some satirical verses; and, although the triumvir merely replied to them in an epigram, he was by no means disposed to rely on this apparent moderation. His friends having pressed him to answer the epigram; "you forget," said he, "that it is no easy matter *scribere contra illum qui proscribere potest.*" * The opportunity was favourable for a complete reconciliation: but the proud disposition of Pollio was little adapted to those times, when it became expedient to bend to the authority of one individual; and, moreover, the consciousness of his own superiority kept him aloof from a party in which others had acquired by previous services the highest posts. "I shall remain neutral," said he, "in the quarrel, and I shall be the victim, whoever may be the conqueror." Notwithstanding this refusal, the sincerity of Pollio, and a common taste for literature, generated by degrees the closest intimacy between them. Octavius attached the highest value to it; and having learned that, a few days after the death of Caius his grandson, Pollio had given a great entertainment, — "You know," said he, "the place which you hold in my friendship. I am surprized that you should share so little in my affliction." — "I supped with my friends," replied Pollio, "on the very day in which I had lost my son Herius." Pollio thus exhibited the

* Of this saying the English language cannot convey a due translation, but it has its original force in the French, *d'écrire contre celui qui peut proscrire.*

strength

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strength of a mind, or rather the abuse of a strong mind, which was hardened to the feelings of nature when it had no longer to struggle against the caprices of fortune. His life was extended to his eightieth year. Esteemed as a poet and historian, he was still not distinguished but for his eloquence, in which he had obtained the first rank among the orators formed in the school of Cicero.' (Vol. ii. p. 310.)

The eighth and last book is a summary of the events that succeeded the decisive battle of Actium, the death of Antony and of Cleopatra, and the consummation of the supreme power raised on the ruins of the republic by Octavius, whose name was exchanged by the servile adulation of the times for that of Augustus. We have not space to follow the author into the subsequent part of his narration. The Roman empire commenced on the 7th day of January, in the seventh consulship of Octavius: but the conference which is said to have taken place between Octavius, Mecœnas, and Agrippa, when the former adopted the advice of Mecœnas which recommended him to preserve the sovereign power in his own hands, has generally been considered to be the epoch of its establishment. According to this calculation, it took place in the beginning of September, in the year 725 of the city, and in the 35th year of his age.

We have thus attempted a sketch of the plan of M. Nougarède in his history of this revolution; and we have also made copious extracts from his work, in order to give our readers a fair specimen of his manner both in sentiment and diction. With respect to language, although he appears to us occasionally to make a picture instead of contenting himself with an exact recital, he has executed his task with elegance and spirit. If he does not exert a deep interest, the beaten track which he has chosen and the circumscribed nature of his plan will fully account for the failure. We cannot deem such a work a desideratum in historical literature. After *Vertot* and Ferguson, what remained to be done? The narrowness also of his subject has been a great disadvantage to him. He begins, at the death of Julius Cæsar, to trace the causes which had long been at work, and were efficiently in action, to undermine and corrupt the Roman liberty, considerably before even the domination of Marius or Sylla. They may be found in the inordinate extension of the Roman conquests, and the wealth brought to Rome from her foreign acquisitions; in the long and obstinate struggles between the patrician and the plebeian orders; and, above all, in the decay which had commenced long before that period in public spirit and public virtue. In short, the history of the decline of Rome is almost the history of Rome itself. The de-

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depravation began early, and worked unseen; till luxury, and the change of manners which it superinduced, achieved the subversion of the republic, and fitted the Roman mind for the proud despotism which still displayed "excess of glory, though obscured," even in the days of her servitude and degradation.

—— "*Sævior armis*
Luxuria incubuit, victumque ulciscitur orbem."
JUV. vi. 292.

ART. VI. *Voyage Critique à l'Etna*, &c.; *i. e.* Critical Travels to Mount Etna, in 1819. By J. A. DE GOURBILLON. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 1l. 1s.

IT appears that the author of these volumes has three times visited many parts of Italy, and was so Italianized that, many years before his last excursion, he had translated Dante, and waited only for that which we apprehend he will never find, the absence of restraints on literature, to publish his version to the world. When we consider the difficulties in the way of an intimate acquaintance with Dante; and that, from the personality of his satire and the fugitive nature of his subjects, it was necessary to establish separate chairs for lecturers on his works almost immediately after his death; we may conclude that M. DE GOURBILLON had mastered the greatest difficulties in becoming acquainted with a country, and its language. He laments an inconsiderate engagement with an English gentleman to travel in company; observes on the wide difference between admiring a friend for his amiable or for his learned endowments; and, with great delicacy to his fellow-traveller, ascribes their separation, to effect which he first raised the standard of revolt, to mutual patience pushed too far. In the course of his route, however, he is frequently in company for many days together with Sir Frederick Henniker and Mr. Waddington; and with them he visits by far the most interesting object in Sicily, and one of the most interesting in the world, the Temple of Sejesta. In every part of his Sicilian tour, he vigorously combats and explodes the errors of Brydone and *Borch*; and, from the tone and context of his whole book, we are not scrupulous in concluding that he is an author on whose good faith the utmost reliance may be placed.

We are inclined, however, to regret M. DE GOURBILLON's ignorance of the Greek language; which, in Italian Greece and Sicily, must have occasionally compelled him to see through the spectacles of books, and only to be a trans-

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a transfuser of the same liquor into a different vessel. This deficiency is also heightened by an affected contempt for the language which must have been the first vehicle of information to his guides, whenever he appeals to them; and we can always perceive an ungraceful manner of treating subjects connected with antient lore, in persons who have not been enabled to drink deeply at the fountain-head. The warmest admirers of Shakspeare must feel for him when he familiarly calls Helen "*Nell*," and brutalizes Homer's characters in Troilus and Cressida; and the warmest of Mr. GOURBILLON's friends must feel for him, when, instead of deploring his non-acquaintance with a language almost necessary to a considerable portion of his labours, he ridicules with bad taste as 'scholastic nonsense' that which would really have *made a man of him.* Indeed, when he tells us, and tells us truly, that, in accounting for the first inhabitants of Sicily, whom we will call Sicels, and the different settlers, chiefly of Grecian origin, who may be distinguished by the name of Sicilians, (a distinction not sufficiently observed,) we can trust to little more than probability, we cannot but think that it would have been a proof of far better taste in him to have been contented with the epitome of their origins, with which Thucydides ushers in the unfortunate Syracusan expedition, than to have paraded his readers over an account of Ceres, Isis, Io, Orus, Proserpine, &c., with which he appears to canvass for the semblance of some collision with secrets of which he knows nothing. If we mistake not, Mr. Eustace was a learned but an indifferent Grecian; and, indeed, we have ever expressed our belief that nature had done more for our countryman than application. There is a sort of touch, a kind of masonic sympathy, which usually enables us to discover each other; and surely the depth of a man's knowlege of these arcana; and, if we are not much deceived, Mr. Eustace and his continuator, together with the present author, might, with advantage to themselves and their readers, have known more.

We have always been of opinion that the natural character of the Neapolitans, overlaid and disfigured as it has been for ages by governments in perpetual and hereditary hostility with the governed, has been much vilified by numerous writers of all countries. Yet nature does wonders for man as well as for the soil in that delicious land. The lazzaroni, whom every Dr. Humdrum, travelling with his pupil, teaches the youth to despise without knowing, are a class of men neither in a state which might be desired nor in that which may with justice be despised by the philanthropist. From everything that we can learn of their habits and subsistence, they are

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are at least equal to the paupers of our own country in health, food, and happiness. Some of them exercise the wholesome and robust employment of fishing, while others cry the fish when caught; some cry fruit and vegetables through the city; some are porters, and their bodily powers are proverbial; all are in some way employed; and the nursery-story of their sleeping naked in the streets is refuted by an ordinance, which is enforced by the regular rounds of the city guard, who are appointed to prevent such a breach of the first law in civilization. It is true that the nobles and the monks between them have imbued this class with notions tolerably superstitious: but, as this was their object, the attainment of it should not, in reason, be made a charge against the poor lazzaroni.

In the reign and under the influence of Napoleon, those bands of robbers who now infest Calabria and the Roman states had disappeared. At present, thanks to their governments, they are organized, and licensed by compositions extorted from rulers whom they despise.

'At the top of the hills which command Frascati, a little town situated about three leagues from Rome, are the ruins of the antient Tusculum, where Cicero composed his Tusculan Disputations. In the midst of these ruins stands a pleasant modern villa called "*La Ruffinella*," belonging to *Lucien Bonaparte*. Some robbers came down from the mountains, and penetrated in broad day-light into the garden where *Lucien* was walking. He perceived their object, and attempted to escape to a pavilion where his family were assembled: but, foiled in this, he hid himself behind a bush. His secretary, drawn to the spot by his earnest admonitions to his children to barricade themselves within the pavilion, was seized instead of his master, gagged, and carried off among the mountains. That faithful servant voluntarily exposed himself to this danger to save *Lucien*, and encouraged the robbers in the erroneous belief that they had secured the real master of the house. I have seen the cavern in which they confined him, and rested on the bed of leaves on which this generous man passed more than one painful night. On the next day, all Rome was apprized of the event: the fact was undeniable, for *Lucien* himself was the narrator. At the expiration of a few days, a man put a letter into his hand, which set an enormous price on the ransom of the person who had been erroneously taken by the robbers for himself, and marked out the place at which the sum was to be deposited. The police of Rome knew and acquiesced in the transaction; the sum was paid; the generous friend was liberated; and the Roman police remained inactive.'

How many instances of these disgraceful events have lately come before the eyes of English readers and English travellers!

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Let us turn to another topic.

'As for the modern title of the Two Sicilies,' says the author, 'it would be difficult to adduce a pretension more absurd, more frivolous, more contrary, in a word, to the nature of things, and to historical facts. That part of Italy which belongs to the King of Naples, and which the Latins knew by the name of *Magna Græcia*, was never called Sicily: but that strange denomination was the creation of a pontiff's brain, about the close of the fourteenth century. This absurdity of the Holy Father was adopted by Martin, King of Sicily Proper; who, without possessing an inch of land in *terra firma*, gave his pretended continental states the name of "*Sicily beyond the Pharos*," and called the island, "*Sicily on this side of the Pharos.*" Alphonso of Arragon, in uniting the two crowns, took care to follow this example, and fixed on these countries the appellation of the Two Sicilies.'

The old name of Palermo, *Panormus*, we shall with all due deference take in its obvious sense, and trace to its obvious derivation; which is, like the Peiraic lands in many parts of Proper Greece, simply allusive to its commodiousness as a harbour or landing-place.

We extract the following picture of the actual state of letters at Palermo, for the benefit of those who admire censorships:

'If we are to believe our two travellers (*Borch* and Brydone) letters and the arts, the sciences and commerce, must flourish highly at Palermo; and yet I found it impossible, in this centre of industry and intelligence, to obtain a thermometer, a description of the city, engravings of antient monuments, or even a map of the country. But then the shops abound in Madonnas, saints, and relics of admirable workmanship, and of moderate price.

'As to letters, they are here on the same footing with the sciences and the arts: few good books are to be found, or the booksellers dare not sell them except to persons furnished with a permit from the Holy Office. The list of prohibited books would of itself form a volume. These strange restrictions are not confined to the purchase of books; in all libraries, public or private, the fatal interdict is written at the back of the volumes. I have read it on the Natural History of *Buffon*; and it is with the greatest precaution, and only after a long acquaintance, that the librarian will confide to another, in his own presence, any work that is forbidden by the Holy Office. Unable any longer to destroy curiosity by committing the inquirer to the flames, they exhaust it by depriving it of food. After these details, it would be impertinent to broach the subject of a free press; of which the very name would here be unintelligible. Yet things are not so desperate as they might seem at first sight; the spirit of tolerance advances here; and, with the necessary permissions, we see daily issuing from the press ascetic dissertations, remarks on the rosary,

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and mystical movements towards the heart of Jesus;—but these permissions are difficult to obtain, even in favour of works least likely to excite the unquiet watchfulness of a timid government. The restrictions and formalities of the censorship involve equally every kind of work, from the horn-book upwards. I have before me a catalogue with this title: *The Books comprized in the Index of the Roman Censorship are permitted to be sold only to those Purchasers who shall produce to the Bookseller the Pontifical Permit.* This catalogue is dated ann. 1819!'

Then follows an account of the formalities necessary to the ushering of a new book into the world, or the reprinting of an old one: to these, as usual, may be added loss of time, money, patience, and many other sacrifices; after all which, if the work possesses the merit of utter worthlessness, the apostolical censor, who is a man usually as ignorant as he is arrogant, gives his *imprimatur.*—In his strictures on *Barch*'s account of the Temple of Segesta, the present author surely in his severity is forgetful of exactness. "Its circumference," says *Barch*, "is very fine: it is formed of thirty-six large columns, fourteen lateral, and six in front:" by which we suppose he meant that, of the four columns at the angles, the face presented to the side and that which is presented to the front should count as one column. His description is deficient in clearness, but, we conceive, is decently intelligible, and undeserving of M. DE G.'s severe censure.

On returning to Palermo, the author falls in with a number of Sicilian recruits:

'Escorted by twenty or thirty men on horseback, two or three hundred on foot, of all ages, panting with fatigue, covered with perspiration and dust, and extenuated to the last degree by hunger and thirst; without shoes, stockings, or hats; their hands forcibly bound behind them; and walking in two lines on each side of a cord which connected them altogether;—these were our companions on re-entering Palermo.

'If this spectacle had occurred to us only for the first time, we might have been tempted to take the men on foot for a band of assassins, and those on horseback for guards or executioners: but we had seen the same thing frequently at Naples; where, as at Palermo, the habit of crouching under their own ignominy had made the people totally indifferent to all feeling on the subject. The carabineers were gendarmes of Ferdinand: the handcuffed men were honest Sicilian peasants, intended of course, by this mode of recruiting, to be transformed into soldiery burning with enthusiasm for their country.

'Not far from Taormina, after having admired the beauty of the view, our eyes were forcibly attracted to a fine modern house rising in the midst of the ruins which surround us on this spot. We could have laid ten to one that this house was a convent. It

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was so. The Franciscans of Taormina have here a retreat of more value than the walls of their city. These good fathers are strangers neither to luxury nor to refinement: their table is excellent, their cellar better still, and their garden filled with the most delicious fruits. Towards the bottom of the platform in question stands a pretty *belvidere*, called by them *la Vardiola*, whence the view is lost in a space equally smiling and unbounded. Hither it is that the hermits of Taormina piously resort every evening, to digest, to pray, and to sleep.'

The author has copied from some Italian documents a list of the curious and dreadful changes produced by earthquakes in the two Sicilies in 1783. We are all acquainted with the fate of the Lucrine Lake: but the earthquake, which converted it into a mountain in one night, was by no means singular either in power or effect; and the convulsions of 1783 appear to have been yet more terrible in their caprice. Among very many stories of these earthquakes, M. DE G. gives some which are taken from a *procès verbal* drawn up on the spot, and supported by the testimonies of the principal of the persons concerned.

'The city of *Terra Nova* was destroyed by that quadruple kind of earthquake which is known by the different denominations of shocks from oscillations, from elevation, from depression, and from rebounding. The last kind is the most horrible, as it is the most unusual. But the ruins of this unhappy city afford so many examples of this species of earthquake, that the most incredulous mind must acquiesce in its existence.'

Some instances are then stated, of houses and even lands that changed their situation; and the latter casualty gave rise to a curious law-suit, arising from the sudden transportation of an olive-ground to a field planted with mulberry-trees. It was settled by arbitration; and the proprietor of the usurping soil was compelled to share his olives with the master of the land that had been usurped.

'In one of the streets was an inn, distant about three hundred paces from the river Soli: immediately before the formidable shock, the host, *John Aquilino*, his wife, one of their nieces, and four travellers, were in a ground-floor room of the inn. At one end of it was a bed; at the foot of the bed, a *brasier*, to contain hot charcoal; and around the room were some chairs, a table, and different domestic utensils. The host was fast asleep on the bed; his wife was seated before the *brasier*, with her feet resting on its base, and holding in her arms her niece, with whom she was playing; the four travellers were sitting round a table on the left of the door, engaged in a game at cards. Such were the different attitudes of the personages, and such the disposition of the scene, when, in a shorter time than would be required to relate it, the theatre

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theatre and actors had changed their place. A violent shock detached the house from the soil on which it rested: house, host, hostess, niece, and the four travellers, were thrown in an instant to the other side of the river; and a frightful abyss appeared on the spot which they had left.'

This hasty transition was, as we might expect, fatal to most of the party, of whom only the host and hostess survived: but the journey through the air appears to have been almost imperceptible; and the *brasier* only appeared to slip from the hostess, who was first convinced of her migration by the novelty of the external objects that surrounded the ruins of her house.

It is not easy to discover the author's reason for selecting the title which he has given to his book, since the ascent of Etna occupies but a very small proportion of it; and of that proportion a considerable share is made up at the expence of *Fazzello*, an author of the sixteenth century, and of the Abbé *Ferrara*, of *Spallanzani*, and of the fanciful picture of Brydone: of whom the latter, it has now been ascertained past all doubt, was indebted to hearsays, wrought up by his fine imagination, for all the details of his ascent. M. DE GOURBILLON not only travelled habitually with one well-informed Englishman, but seems at no time to have journeyed far without an English associate; and his ascent of Etna was performed on the side of Catana in company with Mr. Rae Wilson, who had just arrived in Sicily from the Holy Land. Not to involve ourselves in all the difficulties and hardships sustained by the travellers through the three Etnæan regions, (of which the neglect to supply themselves with water was by far the greatest,) we will take our places by the side of the author on the platform which surmounts the cone of Etna, and surrounds that oval gulf or crater which, at the time of his visit, was supposed to measure about 13,734 French feet in circumference. It is clear, however, that its dimensions must be variable, and the report of *Borelli* in 1669 made it amount to 37,468 feet. This grand total is subdivided into secondary craters, mutually separated by natural bounds and ramparts, produced or destroyed at the caprice of the volcano on which they rest. The whole circumference of what is called the crater contains, according to M. DE GOURBILLON's account, four distinct abysses: the extinguished crater facing to the south, the great crater to the east, one to the north, and one to the west, which he calls the central crater, because it occupies the largest share of the centre of the grand gulf that contains the whole. The eastern appeared quite as large as the crater of Vesuvius,

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and we hope that the author has some data more accurate than the eye for supposing its circumference to be about 5624 feet. After one unsuccessful attempt to descend the southern or extinguished crater, which ended in finding himself, as he ascertained by the fall of a large fragment, at the edge of a frightful and precipitous abyss, M. DE G. with difficulty returned, and with his English friend effected the descent in a more favourable part.

'It is possible that this abyss may have been visited by others, but I am inclined to flatter myself with the contrary belief; and two reasons of considerable weight appear to support this dream of self-love; viz. no traveller, or historian, with whom I am acquainted, has given any account of the enterprize; and, on the whole surface of the soil, covered in this part with a fine yellow sand, we could not discover the slightest trace of a human foot. Whether this be a fancy or a reality, we yielded to the desire, which may appear puerile, of marking our visit to the crater of the volcano; and each left his card on a fragment of lava.

'On arriving at the bottom of the gulf, we drank to the health of Etna, and to the success of our enterprize. Thus acquitted of our obligation to the genius of the mountain, and our guardian genius also, without communicating our design, we were both brought, by a mechanical movement, towards the edge of the abyss where we expected, but a little time before, to have found a speedy and certain death. The sight of this rock, from seven to eight hundred feet high, and the frightful appearance of this mass of lava overhanging its base, would have convinced us that the first direction of our descent was very dangerous: but when, from our present station, we recognized the place where we had lately tried it, a shudder involuntarily seized us, and presented to us the feeling of danger in all its horror.'

M. DE GOURBILLON attempted the northern crater, but was prevented from descending by the sulphureous exhalations, the burning and unsteady footing, and the utter impossibility of directing his course by his sight when clouded by crossing volumes of smoke. If to fix the attention of our readers on these enterprizes were to enlarge the bounds of certain knowlege, we might extract many pages of considerable interest: but when it is considered that, in these regions, we tread on deceitful embers, always working changes on every locality within their reach; that the cone of snow vomiting fire, as the top of Vesuvius appeared to *Fazzello*, would be at present untrue in both its features of description; that neither is snow to be found in these regions, nor fire in the intervals of eruptions; that, though the mountain-colossus might appear the same as a whole, its details, when approached, vary at every successive eruption; that mountains formed and abysses sunken

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smoken were the works frequently of a single hour; — when all these changes are considered, the utmost that a traveller can do is to paint what he saw at a given time; and no man should say that he has described Etna for a period more durable than its short state of quiescence. Less fortunate than *Spallanzani*, the present author was disappointed of seeing the burning lava in its state of liquefaction in the abyss of the great crater: but he was gratified with the view of this appalling phænomenon at the crater newly opened in the year 1819, a few months before his arrival; at which time all appeared yet in action, murmuring, shaking, bubbling, boiling, sparkling, and presenting all the appearances that man's "lawless and uncertain thoughts" ascribe to the volcanic abysses which he is not allowed to fathom.

Though the author's description of the modern and conjectural account of antient Syracuse is in a style and spirit which we do not quite approve in him who treads sacred places, yet it raises our ideas of Thucydides, whose compressed narrative contains details so very circumstantial. The four cities, Ortygia, Acradina, Tyche, and Neapolis, whose union and inclosure formed the antient Syracuse, occupied an extent of which the circumference was ten leagues: but the country of Archimedes is now a city peopled with clergy, and is in that state of decrepitude, ignominy, and decay, which it seems is considered at Trappau as necessary to the preservation of "order" and the "social compact." 'If,' says the present writer, 'you wish to have precise notions of the consequences of giving an ascendancy to priests, come and pass a few months in Sicily, and your ideas will be the clearer.' To leave this melancholy subject, of a system patronized by too many of our English statesmen, and becoming gradually a part of our political creed, we will transcribe the author's account of an original character; who, we hope, is still living at Syracuse, and enjoying the fruits of his learning, integrity, and *happy enthusiasm*.

'The most distinguished man of science in this city is doubtless the Abbé *Capodieci*, of whom I shall have occasion to speak frequently. This Nestor of antiquaries, whose labours and researches have thrown so much light on the history of his country, yet awaits, in his declining years, the recompense due to his patriotic efforts. It were difficult to see any thing more extraordinary than this respectable old man; who, in spite of his white head, yet preserves all the activity and ardour of youth. His love of study, and especially of antiquities, surpasses belief. He lives but in antient times, — speaks but antient languages, — dreams but of antient monuments, — and traces back all things to the deluge. The house which he occupies would be an exhibition in Paris or

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London. In it one breathes the recondite of antient times, and beholds nothing but objects that have seen their two or three thousand years. The room in which the Abbé studies resembles no one existing thing: all antiquity has concurred in furnishing it. The four walls are papered with inscriptions and epitaphs, in every language, the oldest, the scarcest, and the most unintelligible. All round the room, are ranged worm-eaten and dusty tablets, covered with antiquities of every kind and denomination; and, as if space were yet wanting, we find the same on the floor, on the tables, under the chairs, and under the very bed; for, if I do not much mistake, the very night-vessel is an antient lacrymatory. In a word, no man was ever so enamoured of his calling. The love of antient times and of dates extends with him even to the details which he adds to the titles of his books; and as a proof of it I subjoin that of his great work.

"Antient Monuments of Syracuse, illustrated by the Antiquary *Joseph-Maria Capodièci*, Arethusian Shepherd, Member of the Royal Academy of Pericletans of Messina, and of the Academy of Good Taste at Palermo; Honorary Associate of the Arcadian Academy at Rome; Correspondent of the Royal Academy of History and Belles Lettres at Naples; Secretary to the Office of Sicilian Antiquities, &c. &c. &c. Second Edition. Dedicated to the Amateurs of Antiquities. At Syracuse, from the Press of Don Francis M. Puligo; Ann. 1816, from the Birth of Christ: Ann. 2592 of the Olympiads; or, which comes to the same thing, the fourth year of the 648th Olympiad."

With all this recondite jargon, the book is extremely useful, if not indispensable, to those who wish to profit by a sojourn in Syracuse.

Of the Temple of Diana, the most beautiful in Syracuse, but three columns of Greco-Sicilian order, fluted, now remain; which are let into the walls of a modern house, and seen through glass-doors that have been placed before them for their protection. The barbarians who destroyed this splendid edifice, together with the Temple of Diana, were neither Saracens nor Goths, but monks and princes calling themselves Christians.—In the author's long account of Syracuse and its *latomiæ*, we are at a loss to find any great merit. The baths and antiquities of Ortygia, with its ample harbour, the fountain of Arethusa, the museum, the antient monuments of Acradina, and indeed nearly all the objects that arrest his pen, including the supposed ear of Dionysius, are submitted to us in language occasionally brilliant, but too generally light and trivial.

The fault of this work is a certain subacidity of humour, which betrays itself in too many short and impatient terms of satire and reproach, in a land calling for the utmost indulgence from its visitors; a land in the highest state of *social order, loyalty, and good government*, according to the sense

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sense now attempted to be affixed to those words; in short, a land of children in point of useful knowlege, and of full-grown adepts in all the arts that are the inventions of monachism and despotism. A strong inclination for the south, and for the Italian character, which the author defends in many parts of his volumes, leads him into an eulogy of the late Revolution; which we hope may be the commencement of a new order of things, more favourable to the designs of Providence in creating a country that is an Elysium, and peopling the garden with beings capable of all that is great and good, whenever the chains, which at present threaten them again, may finally be broken.

ART. VII. *L'Europe et ses Colonies*, &c.; *i.e.* Europe and its Colonies, in December, 1819. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 16*s.* sewed.

THE French, says this author in his preface, are too exclusively occupied with their own internal discussions, and observe with comparative indifference the march of exterior policy. They cannot, however, without danger to their eventual consequence, wholly neglect the consideration of those claims which divide and agitate the European cabinets. If so many incipient negotiations, now broken and now resumed, are to terminate in an appeal to the "last reason" of sovereigns, France would vainly attempt to remain neuter; for by the force of circumstances she would find herself engaged in the murderous conflict.

It is important, therefore, that Frenchmen should pursue the thread of those intrigues which give birth to so many congresses, and to so many ephemeral treaties, in which nothing is achieved but the temporary deception of each other; and in order to render popular in France the knowlege of those higher interests, which form the motives of conduct of the principal courts of Europe, this sketch, we are told, has been undertaken. London, it is added, is in a great measure now the centre of the politics of the world. Its influence is of the most extensive description; the interests of the distant nations are there studied, known, and appreciated; and no capital can boast so comprehensive a possession of statistical information, or so large a body of able statesmen. It is in London, therefore, that the author supposes himself to be stationed to observe the surrounding play of universal policy: but he begins by discussing the views of Russia, whose ambition threatens at once so vast a circle of powerful neighbours.

Such

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Such are the writer's brief preliminary observations. His first chapter describes Russia as a *monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens*, but without adding *cui lumen ademptum*. It subsists, he says, on invasions, slow indeed but progressive and certain. Whatever is contiguous in any direction is systematically prepared to receive its yoke. It advances gradually, with the calm expansion of a great river in the season of its floods. The states, which it threatens to overflow, are China, Persia, Hindostan, Turkey, Poland, Sweden, and even California: a section is allotted to each of these; and the steps are detailed which are taken by Russia in order to acquire ascendancy over them. At present, Great Britain has no cause to fear the intrusion of Russian ambassadors at Pekin; on the contrary, it would be a step gained for both to familiarize there the residence of an European envoy. Nor is the danger of Hindostan to be called pressing, until the intervening Persian provinces have ceased to be independent: — but, as Russia is about to give a new sovereign to Persia at the decease of the present Shah, and as the government of Calcutta has apparently determined to protect the accession of a different individual from the one who is patronized at Moscow, it is possible that a war concerning the Persian succession will arise between the Emperor Alexander and the Governor-General of British India. This war needs not necessarily involve the cabinet of St. James's, but probably will; as our fleets must be requisite in the Persian gulf, to land troops for the occupation of Bassora and Bagdad, the maritime and Mesopotamian part of Persia being that which we can most easily preserve for our candidate. With the assistance of Sweden and Prussia, we could in Europe occupy Memel, Mittaw, Riga, and even Petersburgh, and assert through our navy a glittering ascendancy in the Baltic: but winter would reverse the conquests of a summer, and bury the British legions, like those of *Bonaparte*, beneath the snow. We may therefore presume that a treaty of partition will be deemed more prudent than a conflict; that the coasts of the Persian gulf will be given up to British commerce; and that the entire basin of territory, which empties its waters into the Caspian, will be added to the possessions of the great landholder, and the Shah of Persia will sink into a boyard. It deserves the notice of the statesman, that the Russians introduce themselves into Persia in avowed alliance with the Armenian Christians, who are Trinitarians; but that the mass of Persian population, whether Mohammedan, Jewish, or Parsee, is anxiously Unitarian; in so much that the young Persians sent to study in this country visited osten-

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ostentatiously the Unitarian places of worship. Missionaries of this description, therefore, would be more likely there to found with a Christian sect the connected European literature, and the resulting political allegiance.

'The English government,' says the author, p. 15., 'partakes the alarm of the Sophi, and has received the Persian embassy with a welcome which gives umbrage to Russia, whose agents were intent on discovering its secret object; which, as we are informed, consisted in a demand of subsidies and troops to support Mirza-Abbas. The cabinet of Teheran must have attached great importance to the success of this mission, as the ambassador had the imprudence to state in some saloons that, if the message which he should carry back did not correspond with the wishes of his sovereign, he should be strangled on his return. There is reason to suppose that the answer was not discouraging, and that Persia is conceding to English commerce some facilities in return for secret assistance. But Persia will have stirred in vain. It is too late. The Czar has triumphed, and the intervention of England will be unable to prevent Fath-Ali from incurring the fortune of the last king of Poland.'

A fourth section specifies the dangers of Turkey, which is stated to be threatened along its whole frontier. The Bishop of Montenegro has thrown into the arms of Russia his ecclesiastical republic of fanatical Greeks on the Adriatic coast; and Albania, Bosnia, and especially Servia, contain many Greek Christians secretly on the watch for a Russian conqueror. The warm protests against the cession of Parga to the Turks are here ascribed to Russian excitement; and the application to Great Britain for the Ionian isles is referred to a connected system of ambition. After all, the protection of Turkey against the Russians is only a British interest, in as much as a relaxation of this protection can be rendered subservient to the defence of Persian independence.

Section v., concerning Poland, laments with some eloquence a catastrophe no longer reversible. Poland, however, rather sympathizes with German than with Russian opinion; and, whenever the revolution of Germany shall acquire a contagious character, and attempt conquest by democratic fraternization, it will probably become united to the Prussian or the Saxon confederacy of princes.

In the sixth section, the writer explains the danger of Sweden. This country is to Great Britain what Persia is to Hindostan, the intervening independent state, whose extinction must precede the invasion of the principal. The north-east winds of spring render the eastern coast of England subject to attack from the Norwegian shore, during the month of April especially. Hence, were Scandinavia united to Russia,

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Russia, a perpetual alarm of invasion could be kept up by the cabinet of Moscow, fatiguing to industry, teasing to property, and costly to government. 'Sweden,' says the author, 'would presently be invaded, although governed by a king skilful in administration and intrepid in combat: but England knows her interests too well to suffer this country to be *muscovized*, without trying the full power of her fleets in the Baltic.'

The ensuing section, on the Russian views about California, may serve to alarm the cabinet of Washington-city, but can scarcely deserve for the next half century to excite even there any vehement solicitude. Still the Russian Colossus bestrides this narrow world with formidable steps; and it is important to inquire what resources wisdom might employ for the interruption of its continual aggrandizement. A remedy may possibly be found in some internal partition. Alexander's leaders, after he had conquered the Persian empire, perceived that they could divide between themselves the provinces intrusted to their respective military superintendence: — Seleucus seized on Babylon, Ptolemy on Ægypt, Antigonus on Greece; and various dynasties independent of each other were thus settled in the principal metropolitan cities of the severed empire. This was of great use to the public prosperity of the whole; and Seleucia, Alexandria, and Thessalonica, date from this period their opulence, their literature, and their ascenddancy. Will another Alexander, when the presiding influence of his grasping mind has ceased to be necessary to the great whole, relinquish *to the most worthy* the subordinate portions of his empire, and assist the destinies to confer on the several competitors their appropriate prize? Well might the imperial soul of Russia feel a qualm when the *army* of Naples proclaimed a constitution! Meanwhile, it is the common interest of Europe that Russia should aggrandize herself on the side of Turkey: this will prepare a separation of friendship from Austria, whose territories would then become in so many points contiguous; and would enable Prussia, as the price of connivance, to extend her own northern coast, and to acquire a desirable independence.

Some English travellers seem to think that Oczakow is better situated than Odessa for commerce: but the present writer says, (p. 33.) 'Odessa contained last year forty thousand souls, great part of whom sleep under tents, while the city is building. Four hundred houses were actually in progress, though unfinished; and between the 1st of January and the 1st of October, 1819, six hundred and ten vessels had entered the port, chiefly to transport the corn of the Ukraine.' Whenever Russia has the wisdom to place her metropolis on

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the Euxine, her prosperity will proceed with a rapidity magically dazzling.

Austria is next the topic of attention. Her views are said to extend over the sacred territory of the church, and over the states of Naples; and it is conjectured that England would assist her in these acquisitions, if Sicily were given up to Great Britain as her share of the spoil.

Prussia is represented as grievously dissatisfied with her allotments at the last general peace, and with some reason; the disjointed territory which has fallen to her share being incapable of consolidation, defence, or great internal improvement, because her neighbours can interrupt her roads of traffic, and render nugatory the tariffs devised for the support of internal manufactures. The real interest of Great Britain at the late peace was to have elevated Prussia into a power of the first rank, by allotting to her the entire Netherlands: she would then have formed a sufficient barrier to the *northern* aggrandizement of France, — to the extension of French coast, — which is the only sort of acquisition dangerous to this side of the Channel. The house of Orange was dispossessed, and needed not to have been re-endowed: on the contrary, Java, Surinam, and some other settlements, which begin to be known and coveted in London, might more easily have been acquired by neglecting than by patronizing the original proprietor. The king of the Netherlands is not likely to succeed in ever consolidating, with the bands of reciprocal affection and patriotic loyalty, his Catholic and his Protestant, his French and his Dutch subjects; since the language and literature of France prevail in his metropolis, undermine the allegiance of his court, and will once more, as at the beginning of the anti-jacobin war, detach his fairest provinces from a sway which is rather despised than abhorred.

Germany, so well compared by *Lafontaine* to a serpent with many heads, is preparing through literature a consolidation of its separate provinces: but it must await a process somewhat revolutionary, a new division into departments, and a proclamation of a constitution by an army in a state of activity, in order to acquire an independent European weight. The Prussian sovereign, if actuated by the spirit of the age, could best undertake a conquest by fraternization; an annexation of contiguous circles, by admitting their representatives to sit in congress at Berlin or Magdeburg.

Under the head Low Countries, some pains are taken, particularly at page 83., to foment the differences which are arising between the Dutch and the English East-India Companies about their respective rights in Java.

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Chapter vii. concerning France, skilfully describes that country as at present no object of alarm, but pacifically disposed, and anxious to heal the wounds of a long and harassing revolution. It is observed, however, that the rapid increase of her internal population, and the want of colonies into which she may transplant her superfluity, will ere long again bring on a restless and military spirit of enterprize. The colonization of Africa is suggested as a remedy. Is the statistical value of Cayenne unknown at Paris?

Spain is described as it was before the recent revolution, which is altering the whole spirit of its policy. A comprehensive knowlege is displayed of all its various possessions, indicative of some views with respect to them being entertained by the cabinet of the Tuileries. Much light is thrown on the revolutionary parties in South America; state-papers of the insurgent authorities are translated; and information similar to that which was collected by the North-American commissioners is made public, in a way which seems to imply that the author was recently a secret agent of his government at Buenos Ayres. This is the soundest part of the book.

Portugal and her colonies are analyzed with less knowlege than the Spanish empire; and a very unfavourable picture is given of the fate of those Europeans who have emigrated to Brazil: (see especially p. 356.) but the English settlers there, according to Mr. Koster and Mr. Luccock, have not experienced these disappointments.

The second volume treats of England exclusively, and describes with curious malignity her possessions and her commerce. Much is ascribed to the Machiavellian policy (as it is here phrased) of the British cabinet: whereas it is often generous to weakness, and improvident from ignorance, (the cession of Java is an instance,) and commonly learns from event instead of dictating to it. The growth of British colonies is every where rapid: but this depends more on the capital which merchants voluntarily invest in the trade, than on the advances made by the government. The habitual administration of New Holland has not been wise, leases have been violated, and maximums imposed; yet, such is the exertion of our colonists every where, that this country is likely to become another North America, and may hereafter (not remotely) detach, like the Phenician sea-ports, an annual *ver sacrum*, or band of useful emigrants, to undertake the conquest from nature of some fresh province of the interior. As all this volume gives but an imperfect account of the various foreign possessions of Great Britain, which have been

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been more completely and more accurately described by our native writers, we deem it unnecessary to make any epitome of the author's geographical catalogue. Suffice it to observe that, in his concluding chapter, he endeavours to awaken the fears of Europe against Russian ambition and British ambition; to represent these two powers as the rival *engorgers* of the world; and to stimulate an indirect confederacy of the best, under the banners of North America, against these monopolizers of the continents and the islands of the earth. Russia, he says, is engrossing the one, and Great Britain the other. He proposes, in the first instance, to revive the armed neutrality, to hold an œcumenic congress for decreeing international laws, and to examine (p. 345.)

'Whether equity does not forbid governments, as well as individuals, from being judges in their own cause; and whether every nation, previously to any appeal to arms, ought not to be compelled to lay its grounds before an amphictyonic council of representatives from other sovereigns, who shall decide concerning the case:

'Whether it ought to be allowed, in order to injure an enemy, ever to violate private property, or to set on fire and wantonly destroy public monuments:

'What are the limits of reprisals:

'Whether any nations should be allowed to keep established armies or fleets so numerous as to threaten the independence of neighbouring nations;

'And in what manner the ambition of those can be restrained, who aspire at the dominion of a vast continent, or at the exclusive empire of the seas, and who impose on other nations humiliating submissions,' &c. &c.

With these suggestions, which are followed by many inferior hints concerning the right of blockade, of search, of impressing, of privateering, of ill-treating prisoners of war, and of using Congreve rockets,—all more or less directed to the purpose of rendering the British ascendancy odious to the inhabitants of Europe,—the author concludes his long lucubration; which is well adapted for the meridian of France, and will have some effect in exciting on the Continent a jealousy of British policy. Our statesmen, therefore, should read it; and, in the appropriate forms, partly by parliamentary speeches and partly by literary explanations, they should remove the unfounded insinuations. No European country so little threatens the independence of any part of the European continent as Great Britain. Our ambition is colonial: the objects which we covet are distant; and the civilized parts of the world are not in danger of our irruptions, nor exposed to our rapacity. If we are carrying order and

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and police among the Pindaries and Belooches; are perhaps measuring the distance between the Indus and the Euphrates; and are inquiring whether a *marechaussée* of British cavalry might not render the whole road safe from Bassora to Calcutta; — for all this we merit the thanks of the friends to civilization. Commerce and literature follow security; they cannot precede it: hence the protective force, if not provided by native local jurisdiction, must be carried out by the foreign merchant: but he is usually willing to be free from the expence of guarding and protecting, as soon as the arts of police are taught, domesticated, established, and naturalized. Hence alternate recognitions of independence have usually separated commercial colonies from their mother-countries; so that the temporary cohesion has nothing in it of political rapacity, or systematic aggrandizement, and ought never to alarm the jealousy of rival-states. We could evacuate North America without injury to our domestic prosperity, as soon as she was equal to the expence of self-protection; and we might, in like manner, evacuate Hindostan, with as little inconvenience to our resources, whenever the requisite power of autonomy shall there be generated.

ART. VIII. *Voyage Historique et Politique au Montenegro, &c.; i. e.* An Historical and Political Tour in Montenegro, containing the Origin of the Montenegrins, &c. &c. By Colonel L. C. VIALLA DE SOMMIERES, Commandant of Castel Nuovo, Governor of the Province of Cattaro, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 396. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 1l. 4s.

MONTENEGRO is the name given by the Venetians to a small province on the eastern shore of the Adriatic, included between Herzegowina and the sea, which in the Illyrian language is called Ozernogore, or the *Black Mountain.* The inhabitants profess the religion of the Greek church, and are governed by a Wladika, or bishop; who, though sovereign at home, acknowleges a sort of allegiance to the Russian empire. In 1806, the French made an irruption into Illyria, for purposes of conquest from the Austrians, and received an unexpected check from the Montenegrins; who, faithful to their Russian protectors, rose in a mass of ten thousand men, headed by their prince-bishop in arms, joined the Russian debarkation on the bank of the Saturina, and compelled the French troops to retreat to Ragusa. This accident rendered the province an object of curiosity to the government of *Bonaparte*, and occasioned the mission of Colonel L. C. VIALLA DE SOMMIERES to explore the district. He has surveyed

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veyed it not merely with the eye of an engineer, but offers a comprehensive geographical description; which includes its natural and civil history, and an account of the manners and occupations of the inhabitants.

The country is most easily approached through the haven of Cattaro; which, however, is not included in this ecclesiastical republic. A great animosity is felt against the Roman Catholics, or Latins, as they are called, who inhabit the district; and who were supposed to be attached to the French and not to the Russian cause. It is divided into five *nahia*, or shires, called Katunska, Rieska, Piessiwaska, Liesanska, and Czerniska. The land is mountainous throughout, and was formerly covered with dark pine-forests. The chief river is the Ricowezernovich, which, though fishy, is not navigable for any length on account of the rapids: it falls into the lake of Scutari. The general face of the country is picturesque, and resembles Swisserland, but the climate is far milder: the dwellings of the inhabitants are numerous, but scattered and insulated so remarkably, that not a single collection of houses in the district deserves the name of a town. A multiplicity of small farms, mostly occupied by the proprietors, forms the general character of the parishes. Pasturage is more the object of attention than agriculture.

Pliny notices these people under the denomination of *Gentes Labeates*, so called from the lake Labeatis, now that of Scutari. On the division of the Roman empire, it was allotted to the Greek section. In the sixth century, the Slavonians held the country, and founded a bishopric at Dioklea, of which the present see may be considered as a continuation, or representative. In the fourteenth century the Venetians expelled from this country George king of Zante, who fled into Russia, and ceded his rights to Stephen Mauromonte, a native of Apulia:—but the Venetians were driven away by the Turks in 1488. Since that period, the Greek church of Montenegro has unwillingly borne a Mohammedan supremacy, and has more than once joined the Russians; for instance, in 1788, in their wars against the Turks: but the peace of 1791 recognized them as still subject to the Porte. In 1795, however, the Turkish bashaw was resisted, and a practical independence has since been maintained.

A coloured view of Cattaro precedes the second chapter, which describes the manner of receiving strangers, and the difficulty of obtaining a right of asylum: but, as soon as the governor and a priest have declared themselves satisfied that a stranger comes with innocent intentions, all the inha-

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bitants express their welcome by kissing his clothes. The costume of the governor is also represented in a coloured plate.

The third chapter describes the constitution of the country. The actual government consists of the prince-bishop, and of a military chieftain named Boghdano, who are respectively intrusted with the direction of the church and of the army; and who are assisted by a council or parliament of five persons, chosen in each of the five counties by a gradationed representation, closely resembling the form of election adopted in the Spanish constitution. These five representatives are called *Sardars*. The police is but feeble, and the right of private vengeance for homicide is still tolerated.

Chapter iv. treats of the public festivals, and gives, from an actual census, the number of the inhabitants; which amounts in all to 53,168 persons, of whom about 13,000 are of age to bear arms.

In the next two chapters, we have descriptions of the dress of the people, which is illustrated by coloured plates. Col. Vialla stood god-father to a child of the governor's sister, which was born during his stay in the family, and gives an account of this ceremony of the Greek church. A sort of shower-bath was substituted for immersion. — The seventh chapter depicts the road towards the convent of Saint Basil. At Schieclich, the author saw a Greek priest, who was a hundred and seventeen years old, and whose grandson was eighty-two. A great-grandson of the latter, aged two years, was brought into the room. Old age is devoutly respected. — The author next takes notice of some remains of Roman roads, and describes the water-clocks of the country; which are probably of equal antiquity with their construction. They have also sun-dials, but no watches. — The ninth chapter describes an intermitting fountain, which flows abundantly during the night, and nearly ceases at noon: the water is very cold. In the ensuing section, we have an account of the method in use for the purpose of being heard at a distance. A sort of speaking trumpet is formed by the hands on each side of the mouth; in which attitude the syllables are bawled aloud separately, and are distinctly heard and understood at the distance of half a league.

Of the eight succeeding chapters the subjects are as follow: Public Dances; the Convent of Saint Basil, and the Hermitage near, in which the embalmed body of the saint is shewn in excellent preservation; a Continuation of the Account of the Manners of the Monks; many religious Peculiarities of the Country, which are illustrated by Plans and Drawings

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Drawings of the Church; the Ceremonies connected with Marriage, among which Adoption is stated to be a common practice; and Friendship, which has here a sort of religious sanction.

'If enmities among the Montenegrins are long and bitter, their friendship at least is inviolable: they love each other with energy and constancy, and often contract *intimate alliances*, as they are called. These alliances are ratified with certain public ceremonies, which give them authenticity. There is nothing mysterious about them, yet they are not exactly similar to those brotherhoods in arms which, in the days of chivalry, were known in Europe.

'Two friends present themselves at church, accompanied only by their most confidential companions. On the holy threshold they place their guns across, make a prayer in conjunction, and take Heaven to witness their inmost dispositions. The priest then blesses the weapons, which they lift up in the form of a cross, and so approach them to their hearts: in this attitude they give to each other the kiss of alliance. Next, the pistols are blessed, and the dirk; and at every distinct act each repeats an oath to defend the other's life with his own. They then exchange arms, and whichever of them survives inherits those of the other.

'A bountiful repast closes the ceremony; in which they drink wine, but not blood, as in the romance of Launcelot of the Lake. These intimate alliances, which *Goar* calls by the name of *Unions*, are not formed here in all respects like those that he describes. According to him, the blessing is bestowed before the altar, and in presence of the congregation: here only the weapons are blessed, and only invited guests attend the ceremony. Moreover, the number of intimates is not always dual; three and even more persons sometimes concurring in these vows of reciprocal defence and attachment. Such an act is scarcely ever violated; it resists every trial; the offence given to one of the allies is common to both or all; and at the least appearance of an attack on any one, all the intimates are in arms. They truly live one for another; — and this is almost a national characteristic, for all the Montenegrins make a common cause of their undertakings.' (P. 269.)

Divorce is the subject of the nineteenth chapter. It is often granted in this country at the suit of relations, when the married parties themselves both wish to continue together. — The author next depicts the usual funeral ceremonies, and records several popular superstitions. — A description of the Highlands is given in the twenty-second chapter; and in the following an account of the diseases most prevalent there. Suicide is stated to be unknown. — The two succeeding sections continue the account of various customs and usages peculiar to the Montenegrins. They have a solemn form of

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ecclesiastical reconciliation, which is called in to abolish private vengeance between hostile families.

A fishing party is thus described in chapter xxvi.:

'On the day after our arrival, the bishop invited us to a fishing party; and as the manner of it is unlike any thing that I have seen elsewhere, I may be allowed to describe it in detail. It is particularly remarkable for the religious services which preceded, accompanied, and terminated the diversion, and which paint the superstitious turn of the people.

'At the season for the migration of the fish, a prodigious number of crows make their appearance in the country, which are called fishing-crows; and it is a great sin to kill them, for they are a sacred bird because they help the inhabitants to earn money. The fishermen, the priests, and the spectators, having assembled beside the river, at a convenient place, solemn prayers for the success of the fishing were put up by the priests, who appeared to watch the skies like augurs, and to attend alike to the symptoms of weather and to the flight of birds. When both shores were duly blessed, and also the nets and tackle, boys were sent into the woods to drive out the crows; and, meanwhile, baskets, bow-nets, and seines, were sunken in the current of the stream. The birds seem to know their part, and come and perch quietly on the trees near, and on scaffoldings placed for them, while the fishermen are wading in the water. The utmost silence is observed. When the nets are placed, prayers recommence; after which a person walks up each bank of the river strowing grains of corn, millet, and other small seeds steeped in honeyed water, and macerated in it to fermentation. The fish immediately rise to the surface to nibble at this bait. As soon as the birds perceive them, they pounce on the fish with screams of joy. Terrified at this sudden attack of their enemies, the fish dart heedlessly into all the nets, baskets, and traps which had been provided; and the fishermen were presently occupied in lifting their full nets, &c. and emptying them into casks which were brought for the purpose.

'After this operation, the baskets, the traps, and the nets, were replaced; prayers and silence were resumed; and, when the strowers of grain had repeated their office, the birds again burst screaming on the flood, and again a vast harvest of fish was found in the snares. This operation was repeated hourly until the time of the repast, and was likely to form a daily pastime for about three weeks, after which the fishing-crows leave the country.

'Whenever the nets are drawn up, great joy illumines the countenances of the bystanders; and, after the last haul, the priest returns thanks to God at considerable length. Such of the fish as are not intended to be cured for preservation are cooked by the river-side, and are partaken by the whole company, sitting promiscuously round the Wladika and the priests, who officiate as the masters of the ceremony. Songs accompanied by the monochord succeed to the repast.

'Finally,

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'Finally, on the last day of the fishing-season, more crowded assemblages of people are allowed to take part in the festival; and women and children are admitted, who are suffered to carry away to their homes the entire proceeds of the day's sport. Exhibiters of dances and performers on the monochord join the assemblage, which assumes the appearance of a fair, and is prolonged to a late hour. The numberless fires lighted on the river's edge, to cook the suppers of the many groupes, have a picturesque effect.'

In chapter xxvii. the author describes Cettigné, where the prince-bishop resides in a convent. He keeps a mule, but does not indulge in the luxury of a carriage: his costume is represented in a coloured plate. — The concluding chapter gives an account of this individual, whose name is Peter Petrowich, who was born at Gnegussi about the year 1750, and ordained in 1777 bishop of Carlowich, on the nomination of the Emperor Joseph the Second. He visited Russia in 1779, was decorated there with the order of Saint Anne, and soon afterward succeeded to his uncle who had previously been bishop of the Montenegrins.

Volume II. is less interesting than the first, being much occupied with petty political considerations, which had an apparent importance while *Bonaparte* was disputing Illyria with the allies, but which have merged in subsequent arrangements. We shall therefore not detail the contents of each chapter, but make an occasional extract of any peculiar circumstance.

At Montenegro is cultivated a garden-plant as yet unknown in France, the *Bamia*. It is a native of Egypt, but thrives at Constantinople, where an extensive consumption of it prevails. The fruit is eaten green, and is a most agreeable ragout. A plate is given of the flower and fruit of this esculent vegetable. — Other botanical notices also occur.

In a chapter on Public Instruction, it is stated that this whole district is without a public school; and that the clergy, who are nearly the only lettered persons, have all been educated abroad. The priests use written music in the churches: but the people, though fond of singing, have learned wholly by the ear. They have love-songs, of which an insipid specimen is translated.

Chapter x. contains some particulars of Ali, the Pacha of Ioannina, who was once ambitious of possessing the territory of the Montenegrins: but his troops were defeated; and the heads of the Turks, hoisted on long poles, decorate the defiles through which he wished to penetrate into the country. It was immediately after this victory that delegates were sent

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to Petersburgh, to request that the Russian ambassador at Constantinople would assert the independence of Montenegro. The conduct of the prince-bishop is praised in this transaction as alike courageous and skilful.

A bitter sally occurs at p. 232. against the cession of Parga to this tyrannic rebel, who purchased the territory of an individual for a smaller sum than the government had to allow for the indemnity of the dispossessed. The author complains of some journal, or newspaper, published at Malta, in which his mission was denounced and thwarted: but all these personalities are now of little moment.

The ruins of Risano, not very interesting, attract some attention in the thirteenth chapter. The fourteenth relates the history of George Castrioto, commonly called Scanderbeg, who gave temporary celebrity to these shores, but whose life is here detailed more to eke out a lingering narration into two equal volumes than for any essential or connected utility. — The whole work, though it certainly adds to our geographical knowlege of a spot and a people seldom explored, is tediously protracted, and might have been condensed with advantage into a single volume.

A map of the country is prefixed, besides the twelve miserable coloured engravings which are interspersed.

Art. IX. *Revue Chronologique de l'Histoire de France*, &c.; *i. e.* A Chronological Review of French History, from the Convocation of the Notables to the Departure of the Foreign Armies. 1787–1818. 8vo. pp. 834. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 16s.

History is not the department of literature which has been cultivated with most success in France. Monarchical and ecclesiastical prejudices long opposed, through the censorship of the press, a heavy obstacle to the just and liberal appreciation of character and event; and, since the practical tolerance of government has removed in part these difficulties, France has been too much occupied with the present to reconsider calmly the past. The time, therefore, is only now approaching when an annalist may aspire so to relate the fortunes of his country, as to avoid the reproach of either unprincipled flattery or servile timidity.

The accession of Henry IV. prepared the dawn of liberal ideas: the opinions of the Protestant insurgents were viewed with favour by the court; and they were instilled into several provincial parliaments and several titled families. *De Thou* is the earliest historian of the French who comments, with independence and candour, on the events of his own times: but,

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but, writing in Latin, he did not found a national spirit: his details are excessive, his excursions teasing, his astrological credulity mortifying; and, though *Carte* gave us in 1733 an excellent edition of his works in London, they slumber as books of reference in our libraries, and are not perused as the essential picture of the age.

Mezerai wrote, with almost republican liberty, a history of France, in three folio volumes, of which the last bears date in 1651. His research was less remarkable than his courage; and he seems to have caught from Tacitus a disposition to believe in great crimes, so that his statement often reads like a libel. The *Abregé Chronologique* of *Mezerai*'s history, executed in Holland, under the superintendence of *Dupin*, *Launoi*, and *Dirois*, has superseded the original work, and remains the best source of intelligence concerning France.

The Jesuit *Daniel* wrote with that zeal for the church and the king, which was the domineering spirit of the age of Louis XIV.: but the short-lived popularity of his work vanished entirely under the regency of the Duke of Orleans, who prepared alike the libertinism and the liberality which was destined to characterize the French literature of the age of Mad. *de Pompadour*; for it is to the Aspasia of Louis XV., and not to the monarch, that the spirit of the times should be ascribed.

President *Hénault* also wrote a *Precis Chronologique de l'Histoire de France*, which was printed in 1768, and had great success. He always affects and often realizes a superficial way of writing.

It is much to be lamented that *Voltaire*, whose *Siècle de Louis Quatorze* is in so many respects an historical model, did not rather confine himself to French history, than undertake those romantic and ill-authenticated narratives about Peter of Russia and Charles of Sweden, which he has presented to us.

In short, a truly national history of France is yet wanting; and the author of this *Revue Chronologique* probably intends to attempt to supply the deficiency, in the form exhibited in this specimen. Otherwise, he would scarcely have extended his preliminary dissertation over so wide a field of criticism as it now embraces, or have passed in formal review the various ancient writers whom we have been mentioning. His volume contains a chronology of France from 1787 to 1818, and forms a valuable and comprehensive table of reference to all the principal incidents of the late Revolution; which may be considered as commencing with the meeting of the Notables, and as terminating with the retirement of the armies of the confederated princes from the French territory.

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An idea may best be formed of the plan and manner of the author by the translation of some detached paragraphs:

'1788. Dec. 1.—The states of Dauphiny assemble at Romans. It is there unanimously decided that the number of deputies which the province shall send to the States-General shall be fixed on the sole basis of its populousness, without regard to the amount of taxation; because the French meet in States-General as men, and free men, and not as proprietors. The representation of Dauphiny is fixed at thirty deputies; five for the clergy, ten for the nobility, and fifteen for the third estate.'—

'1789. June 17.—The deputies of the third estate, united to some obscure dissidents of the clerical order, declare, in a nocturnal sitting, at the motion of the Abbé *Sieyes*, by a majority of 480 votes out of 569, that they are the only legitimate national assembly; and by this denomination they constitute themselves actively.

'It is immediately decreed that the taxes now levied in the kingdom, not having had the consent of the nation, are all illegal: but they are provisionally allowed to be gathered until the day of the separation of this assembly, from whatever cause such separation may proceed.—This decree, which is the revolution itself, and which proves the audacity of the chieftains of the third estate, would neither have been proposed nor accepted, but for the thoughtlessness of the nobility, and the indecision of the government.'—

'1789. August 4.—A memorable nocturnal sitting; in which, at the motion of the Viscount *de Noailles*, without deliberating, and, by a movement of philanthropic intoxication, were abolished all feudal rights, seigniorial jurisdictions, manorial privileges, and other local and personal immunities: the venality of offices was destroyed: tythes were declared liable to compensation: all casualties and surplice-fees were extinguished: all Frenchmen were declared admissible to all civil and military employments; and a revisal of the pension-list was voted. The electric shock is not more rapid than this sweeping patriotic impulse.'—

'1789. Sept. 10.—Decreed that the legislative body shall consist of one chamber only. Few deputies conceive the inconvenience of this arrangement, and only five or six declare against it; *Lally-Tolendal*, *Dupont de Nemours*, *Mounier*, *Malouet*, and *Cazalès*. The first, in a profound and eloquent discourse, developed the advantages of giving to a monarchy two legislative chambers: but the French, who wished for a representative government, are in general so ignorant of the distribution of powers, that his speech was heard with disapprobation, and interrupted by frequent murmurs. Few members of the third estate perceive that, by concentrating in themselves alone the whole authority of the States-General, they will open the gate to the despotism of the democracy; which, if not the most lasting, is the most terrible, because the agents are transient, and its caprices mutable.'—

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1791. Sept. 30. — After having detailed the particulars of the last sitting of the Constituting Assembly, the author thus concludes:

"To the Constituting Assembly, France refers the origin of a crowd of ameliorations. Torture and other judicial barbarities were forbidden: criminal jurisprudence was reformed: liberty of worship was bestowed: monastic vows were abolished: *Lettres-de-cachet* were declared illegal, and personal liberty was consecrated: the relative equality of taxation was decreed: internal custom-houses were suppressed; and the division of the country into departments, by establishing an uniformity of administration, removed pernicious provincial jealousies. The abolition of tythes and feudal dues has been useful to agriculture, although the mode of abolition did not sufficiently regard the compensations due to individual interests: the equalization of clerical incomes has raised many individuals to comfort; and the suppression of contracts of apprenticeship, and of the attached privileges, has developed a spirit of enterprize and competition: so that in thirty years French industry has made a greater progress than in the three preceding centuries, and local interests have every where been consulted by a magistracy known to and chosen by the people. Another admirable institution was that of the National Guard, of which the advantages became especially visible in 1814 and 1815: but its perpetual services to internal security were at all times conspicuous, and particularly in 1804 and 1805."

From such passages, it may be perceived that the author is a friend to monarchy, to representation, and to a government by two Chambers or Houses; in short, that he is well inclined to a British constitution. He seems, indeed, to have learnt in the writings of Mr. Burke his decided, bitter, and unrelenting antipathy to the sanguinary and democratic factions of the Revolution. He even pushes his hostility somewhat too far, and confounds *Carnot*, who was a meritorious minister at war, with the sanguinary ruffians who were his contemporary co-operators. The same abuse, also, which is hurled at the Jacobins, during the early phases of the Revolution, is applied to the Bonapartists during the latter; so that the main drift of the praise and the blame bestowed is to support the hereditary chartered monarchy as at present established. We remark even a something of undue bitterness against *Bonaparte*, as if he were still feared; for instance, in charging him with the breach of the peace of Amiens. The ill-wording of the article concerning Malta supplied the chief pretence, and ought to teach diplomatists to leave nothing unsettled: the entire island had better have been given to either party than left as a mark for chicanery and a bone for contention.

During the invasion of Italy by *Bonaparte*, on the 25th of December, 1797, Cardinal *Chiaramonte*, then Bishop of Imola,

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Imola, preached a homily, in which he praised democratic government, liberty, and equality. "*Siate buoni cristiani, e sarete ottimi democratici.*" These words were remembered, and occasioned that secret protection which placed him on the papal throne. He appears, however, to have been sincere, and would lately have conferred on the ecclesiastical states a representative civil constitution.

The entire work is divided into six periods, of which the first contains a chronological summary of the events occurring previously to and during the meeting of the Constituting Assembly, which separated in 1791, and of the Legislative Assembly, which separated in September, 1792: the second period gives the history of the Convention, which separated in 1795: the third treats of the Directorial Government, which terminated in 1799: the fourth, of the Consular Government, which terminated in 1804: the fifth embraces the imperial sway of *Bonaparte*, until his deposition in 1814. This section is closed by the following reflection:

'*Bonaparte*, professing to conduct the nation to the conquest of the world, received in exchange the sacrifice of all its liberties, the abandonment of all its rights, and the disposal of all its military population. The French, for the tenth time, shewed that they can best be led to slavery by irritating that desire, that passion for domineering, which has been the usual motive of their great wars. May this last attempt undeceive them for ever, and inspire the more laudable ambition of making themselves happy and prosperous at home, by cultivating their internal resources. They will always be strong enough to repel foreigners, if they know how to be just to each other, and to despise national rivalry.'

The sixth and concluding period narrates the restoration of the Bourbon dynasty in the person of Louis XVIII. Some general reflections close the volume; which contains a convenient and abundant collection of the successive incidents of the Revolution, carefully dated, and characterized with vivacity in the spirit of the present ruling powers of France. It is an useful and well-made book of reference for the French history of our own times.

The military character of England is very lightly estimated by this writer, especially before the appearance of Wellington on the field, who is stated to have re-elevated our drooping flag: yet even he is pourtrayed as a *timid* commander; and the victory of Waterloo is ascribed more to the appearance and charge of the Prussians than to British firmness and valour.

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ART. X. *Pièces Inédites de Voltaire ; &c.*; *i. e.* Inedited Pieces of *Voltaire*, printed according to the Original MSS. 8vo. pp. 464. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 9s.

WE lately commemorated a sort of supplement to the works of *Voltaire*, chiefly derived from the correspondence of Mad. *de Graffigny*, (vol. xcii. p. 502.) and here is another such urnfull of posthumous remains. They will all, no doubt, one day be incorporated in chronological order with the great mass of this great man's writings. Notwithstanding the blunders of his superficial erudition and the licence of his ethic sentiments, still the attractive brilliancy of his style, the piercing sagacity of his inferences, the various resources of his imagination, the winged activity of his comic wit, the versatile sympathy of his feeling, and his general liberality and philanthropy of purpose, place him high in the scarcest class of writers, and will long preserve his works both as a national and an European classic. This volume is divided into five sections, of which the first contains a suppressed dedication of the *Henriade* to Louis XV., some variations in the poem itself, a dramatic fragment of an unfinished tragedy intitled *Amulius and Numitor*, an interlude in rhyme, intended to celebrate the marriage of Louis XV., and a cantata supposed to have been written at Berlin for the Princess Ulrica of Prussia. — 2dly. Various epistles in verse; of which the author had not preserved copies, or which he deliberately omitted in the printed collection of his epistles, on account of their inferior poetic merit. — 3dly. A multitude of occasional poems, which have their apology in the good humour that dictated them, or in the readiness to oblige, to divert, to resent, or to compliment, which they display: but which again were probably omitted by *Voltaire* in the extant collection of his minor poems, on account of their less felicitous execution. He was well aware that it answers better to an author to be appreciated by his select than by his collective works.

The fourth section includes some prose fragments, of which an antiquarian dissertation concerning the various offices in the King of France's household is the most important. — The fifth and concluding section is the only valuable one; it produces much inedited correspondence; and several letters throw a curious, a fresh, and an interesting light on celebrated men, and on enduring books. We shall borrow some of the letters *written in English*, which make mention of persons distinguished in this country.

We select a letter to the celebrated Bubb Doddington, afterward Lord Melcombe, probably dated early in 1732, as the

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the person recommended in it visited England at that time, and several others, addressed to M. *Tiriot* himself.

'Sir,

'I took lately the liberty to send you the *History*, or rather an *Essay on the History of King Charles the Twelfth*. Now I beg leave to make you a better present. M. *Tiriot*, who will render you this, is a friend of mine who travels for his pleasure, and learns English for his instruction. I have so often spoken to him of all the favours you honoured me with, that I could not forbear charging him with the thanks I must return to your kindness. I will never let slip an opportunity of making you sensible of my gratitude, not only to you but to England; and I cannot better express my love to your country, than by procuring to my friend the honour of your acquaintance; for travellers judge of a country by the men they have seen: and certainly, by that highest esteem which I profess for the English nation, one may easily perceive I had the honour once to enjoy Mr. Doddington's conversation. I am, with respect and gratitude, Sir,

'Your most humble, obedient, faithful servant,

'VOLTAIRE.'

'To M. *Tiriot*.

'*Paris*, 14 *Août*, 1732.

'You are my friend, you love liberty, you have a thinking soul, therefore England must please you. I am not surprised you like M. de Chavigny: he is one of those men born to ingratiate themselves every where; to humour the dull German, to sooth the haughty English, to converse with the French, to negociate with the subtle Italian. I know he was highly beloved by the late King George and all his court. It is not my business to guess whether he is charged with so favourable a commission as he was formerly: but, whatever will be the footing upon which he treats now with the English, sure I am his person will be very acceptable, though his commission should not. I do not question but you have seen all those whom you have asked letters for. I hope my Lord Bolingbroke, Mr. Pope, Mr. Gay, my Lord Harvey, Mr. Pulteney, are your friends by this time: sure you talk English with them; and the first letter I shall receive from you will be entirely English. You will tell me whom you like best, Ben Jonson, or Vanbrugh, or Wycherly. You will set up for a judge between Dryden, Pope, Addison, and Prior. In the mean time, if you remember something of French poetry, I will tell you I have made three acts entirely new, which will be acted in a very few days. I hope *Eriphile* by these means will rear up her head even above the sacred laurels of *Jephté*. —

'There is another business, which I have exceedingly at heart: the plates of the *Henriade*, great and small, are in the hands of the bookseller Woodman, who lives in Russel-street, Covent-garden: if you could buy them at a reasonable rate it would be a notable service to me. I know they want to be retouched again by some able hand, and that I will take care of at Paris. Woodman could not make any use of those plates, and they are neces-

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sary to me for the great edition of the *Henriade*, which I design to print at Paris. You must not let him suspect you have any great desire to have those plates, nor that you set a great value upon them. It will be an easy matter to you to buy them very cheap. I will send you the money by the banker you shall appoint.'—

'*Paris*, 26 *May*, *N.S.* 1732.

'I am very sorry that M. Bernard has stolen my compliment to the gentlemen of the pit, and has sent to you what I would show to nobody, and what you have communicated to many persons. I will not excuse myself by telling you Bernard's copy was faulty in many places. I knew very well that a discourse written in one day, and made like a hasty-pudding, was to be swallowed all at once by the pit, but not to be chewed by readers. Since I did not send it to you, why then have you showed it to others? After all I forgive you and Bernard, because you are both very amiable creatures. My Lady Sandwich takes upon herself to get the *Craftsman* for the Abbot Rothelin: you may spare yourself this trouble.

'I have seen some French verses of the young Bernard, intended for the young idol whom you adore. The verses are not good, nor are convenient those of Pope and Gay; the reason of it seems to me very plain: the picture itself is an allusion. Your nymph's prudery is expressed by the temple of Diana: if you load this allegory with another allusion to the first book of Virgil, it will not be understood by the women and by the young coxcombs or fops. Even many men of letters, in reading it, will be at a stand for a little while till they remember the passage of Virgil. I grant a famous passage of any great author is very convenient for a print or to a medal. The motto, *Ite, missa est*, was admirable for the medal of King James the Second. *Æneus est intus* suited very well Lewis the Fourteenth, and so forth. Here the thing is quite different: it is not a single *hemisticke*, known by every body, that strikes a full light on the mind of the reader; this is a long allusion to that Latin verse, *et vera incessu patuit dea*. The quick flash of the Latin loses its brightness in the long English commentary. Two verses are enough, one for rhyme and one for sense.* I hope Sir Homer Pope and Sir Ovid Gay will be so kind as to forgive my boldness; you know I entertain for them the sense of the highest esteem: I admire their works, I love their persons, I would with all my heart live with them, but you know I am tied; I am fettered here by my studies, my works, my fortune and my health. The *baronne* has been very sick, but is recovered. I thank you for the lamentable story of the bookbinder. Pray, my dear, send me the remarks which the traveller Motraie has scribbled on my history. I was a fool to print so few copies of that book: they have made here four editions of it: the fourth edition was sent to me this very morning. I have differed (*deferred*) to print *Eriphile*, because I intend to try it again on the theatre next year. Enough of my affairs; those of the French parliament, the

* M. *de V.* here seems to refer to our old Hudibrastic couplet:

"But one for sense and one for rhyme
Are quite sufficient at one time."

tracas-

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bracaneries of the priests, the foolish rage of the Jesuits and Jansenists I despise, and I do not care a pin for all these facetious troubles, unless we have barricades. I live very easy at your *baronne*'s house; while you go roaming abroad, I stay at home like a Carthusian. Farewell, my dear friend, love the English nation, ingratiate me with your friends: tell chiefly my Lord and my Lady Bolingbroke I am attached to them for life. My respects to the great foes, Mr. Pulteney and my Lord and Lady Harvey. Drink my health with the glutton Pope. Write often. Get my plates out of Woodman's hands when the time shall be proper. Farewell.'

'1734.

'My dear friend, your letter has been to me one of the kindest comforts I have received in my long tribulation. I do not call this mine adventure by its proper name; for a misfortune, that has brought to me so many marks of the greatest friendship is rather a happiness than a misfortune: I never was so well helped by all my acquaintances. There was a sort of conspiracy amongst my friends against my enemies; but I assure you nothing has relieved me more, nothing has been more acceptable to me, than the new assurances of your tenderness. You tell me you are ready to leave England and to come to me: is it very true? Can you give me such a token of your heart? Come, then, but come to *Paris*: I shall be there in all likelihood towards Christmas. You know I have a little house, where there is a pretty apartment that I can give to a friend: what hinders you from gratifying me with your presence? Have you not been long enough in the damp air of London? Had I consulted but my love for liberty, and my desire of living with you, certainly I had posted away to Covent-garden and to Russel-street: but I was nailed up in France by all the services my friends have done for me. I could not, without ingratitude, forsake my own affairs, of which they have taken so constant and so useful a care. Had it not been for this, depend upon it I would have passed the rest of my days in London: but as long as I am loved so earnestly by some people in France, it will be impossible for me to seek for another asylum. Where there is friendship, there is our natural soil: come, then, and renew with me the ties of that sacred and unalterable virtue. Let not your proposal be a transient enthusiasm of a tender soul, but the firm resolution of a strong and a virtuous mind. Come, my dear, I conjure you to do it. It is most certain I have but few years to live; do not debar me of the pleasure to pass these moments with you.

'I have written many things which I long to show you. The satisfaction a true friend may receive from the communication of my thoughts is beyond the vain applause of the public.

'Have you seen the little, and too little, book written by Montesquieu, on the decadence of the Romain empire? They call it the decadence of Montesquieu. It is true the book is very far from being what it ought to be; but yet there are many things in it which deserve to be read, and that makes me angry with the author for having so lightly treated of so great a matter. That book is full of hints. It is less a book than an ingenious *table des matières* written in an odd style: but to enlarge fully upon such a

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subject requires liberty. An author at London may give a full career to his thoughts: here he must stint them. We have here but the tenth part of our soul. Farewell, my soul is entirely attached to yours.

'Write me by the next post, at the same address. Let me know whether the author of the *Pour et Contre* is at London. Have you any news about literature? Farewell, I am yours for ever.'—

'*Cirey*, 14 *Août*, 1738.

'I thank you, my dear *Tiriot*, for all the cares you take upon you, and more for your good resolution *omittere mirari beatæ fumum et opes strepitumque Romæ*, and come to Cirey, where you will see a goddess who deserves well your homage, and a friend worthy of your heart. That famous Mr. Saunderson is, I think, the blind man who so well understands the theory of colours: it is one of the prodigies which England bears every day. Pray subscribe for me to his book, for the royal paper, and let my name be counted amongst the happy readers of his productions.

'Be so kind as to convey to me the works of Cotes and Smith as quickly as possible. I have already read all the chapters upon the tides, that Mr. Turner and Mr. Bremond have suggested to you, for I have by me the *Philosophical Transactions*: but I am not satisfied with those little treatises; the question is not treated fully enough: we want the great Halley's new observations.

'If Mr. Turner would be so kind as to procure me something new about that part of natural philosophy, I should be much obliged to him.

'Tell Mr. Turner he should come to Cirey before he returns to England, for Cirey is a province of England: Mr. Turner should, therefore, come into Cireyshire.

'Farewell, my dear *Tiriot*, Moussinot will give you the money necessary to get our English books. My Lady Emily Newton sends her services to you.

'*Il y a un diable d'Anglais qui a fait une très belle traduction du saint Alcoran, précédée d'une préface beaucoup plus belle que tous les Alcorans du monde.*

'*M. Turner devrait vous dire quel est cet honnête chrétien-là: il m'a fait l'honneur de m'envoyer son œuvre; je voudrais bien lui faire présent de mon petit chétif Newtonisme.*

'*Adieu, mon cher père Mersenne; Mersenne, des agréments et des choses essentielles. Quand vous embrasserai-je donc?*'

Our readers, perhaps, will not have expected, any more than we did, to find Mons. *de Voltaire* writing such good English; nor to obtain it so *well printed* in a work from a Parisian press. We have in our possession one or two MS. letters of the philosopher of Ferney, composed in English, which are not such creditable specimens of his attainments in our language as those that we have just quoted. Is it to be conjectured that the latter have undergone some revision?

Although *Voltaire* composed an introduction to astronomy for the use of the Marchioness *de Chastelet*, which was published under the title *Philosophie de Newton*, he had at heart a con-

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a contempt for the sciences, (as Hume had,) and says of *Reaumur;* (p. 361.) 'F. *Reaumur* had a pension of sixteen thousand francs for having spoilt some iron, broken some glass, and dissected some flies. He was well paid.'

The greater part of this book can interest only in France: but, as *Voltaire* was, perhaps, an agent of the French court sent to this country to concert with Bolingbroke, Atterbury, and others, a restoration of the Stuarts, there are portions of his life or writings which may throw light on the purposes of English parties.

ART. XI. *L'Observateur,* &c.: *i. e. The Observer,* or M. *Martin.* By PIGAULT-LEBRUN. 2 Vols. 12mo. pp. 250. Paris. 1820. Imported by Treuttel and Würtz. Price 8s.

M. PIGAULT-LEBRUN has long been known as a maker of French novels, who has the art of depicting in a lively way the manners of his country, and has occasionally lifted the veil which a decorous writer holds suspended over their imperfections. This novel is not reproachable for indecency, but rather for insipidity. A benevolent old bachelor and his companion quit Paris in a one-horse-chaise, call at a village-inn, display great penetration, bestow benevolent services, and attach the whole population of the place, mayor, priest, steward, inn-keeper, landlady, and milk-girl. By degrees, it appears that a Russian nobleman is concealed in the carriage, who is in pursuit of an itinerant princess. After various adventures, more strange than interesting, and more interesting than probable, the fugitive lovers are discovered and detained, and the hostile relatives reconciled and assembled: but, alas! only the comic and inferior personages of the story are destined to be happy; the lover *Stanislas* dies of a fever, and the beloved *Paula* of grief for his loss; and the second volume concludes with their funeral obsequies.

The scene of this adventure shifts from the icy-banks of the Neva to the cheerful walks beside the Seine, and affords various opportunities for amusing description: but the character of the incidents is too little assorted to our habits to render a translation into English a popular and profitable speculation. The novelist by profession might transplant with advantage some of the intrigue, if it were attached to a back-ground less uniform and nugatory. Romances, like plays, are common property, which it usually answers better to plunder than to import. "*Quam parvâ sapientiâ regitur mundus,*" said the Swedish chancellor *Oxenstierna;* and we are often tempted to apply a parallel reflection to the composition of novels, and to exclaim, with how little that is valuable these readers are content!

INDEX

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INDEX

To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

N. B. *To find any particular* Book, *or* Pamphlet, *see the* Table of Contents, *prefixed to the Volume.*

A

AILSA, island, its mineralogical composition, 181.

Allston, Mr., specimens of his poetry, 310.

America, North, numerous statistical particulars of, 113—130. 375—389. View of its literature in general, and particularly of its poetry, 131. 299. Observations on the unfriendly spirit existing between her and Great Britain, 199. 297.

———, South, particulars relative to the provinces of, 84. Their population, 88. Melancholy particulars of the English emigrations to join the patriots there, 106—111.

Amidine, on the decomposition of, 288.

Aminta, of Tasso, observations on, and specimens of a translation of, 22—31.

Analysis, combinatorial, its principles and object, 408.

Antiquary, at Syracuse, a learned Abbé, his enthusiasm, 519.

Antismus, explanation of that figure of rhetoric, 222.

Antony, Mark, his character and proceedings after the death of Cæsar, 501. His infatuated adherence to Cleopatra, 507.

Appian Road, observations on the formation of, 278.

Arran, Isle of, its mineralogy, 176.

Artigas, General, account of, 91.

Association, observations on, 314.

Atmospherology, of the Arctic regions, 236.

B

Bacon, Lord, eloquent character of his writings, 64.

Bards of Columbia, a poem, 310.

Bear, Polar, its flesh very good eating, but the liver pernicious, 362.

Beauvois, M., on a natural wall in North Carolina, 490.

Binomial theorem, two proofs of, 159.

Blenheim, battle of, described, 343.

Blood, on its component parts, 392.

Bonaparte, Napoleon, and his Red Man, interview between, 214.

———, Lucien, his villa near Rome attacked by banditti, 513.

Boston, New England, account of, 123.

Brande, Professor, on gaseous compounds, 394.

Brazil, population of its provinces and cities, 90.

Brinkley, Dr., his astronomical observations, 162. On astronomical refractions, 164. His investigations in physical astronomy, 166. On the form of arbitrary constant quantities, 167.

Brutus, his objections to the pro-

Digitized by Google

proposed murder of Antony and Lepidus, 500. His subsequent infatuation, 502. His refusal to return from Greece into Italy, 504.

Buenos Ayres, commencement of the revolution at, 87.

Burke, Mr., his eloquence compared with that of Lord Chatham, 256.

Burring, in pronunciation, memoir on, 479.

Burton, Colonel, and Sir Gregory Bellerdiston, supposed story of, 353.

Bute, Island of, its mineralogy, 178.

C

Cæsar, his assassination not beneficial to the Roman people, 499.

Cameleon, mineral, experiments respecting, 473.

Capodieci, Abbé, his antiquarian enthusiasm, 519.

Captive of Stamboul, account of that poem, 246.

Carson, Dr., on the elasticity of the lungs, 396.

Catacombs, in Syracuse, account of, 281.

Cement, hydraulic, experiments on, 483.

Champion, Mr., his translation of the Shah-nameh compared with that of M. Goerres, 451—455.

Charlotte, Queen of George III., pleasing anecdotes of, 440.

Chatham, Lord, his eloquence compared with that of Mr. Burke, 256. Compared with Mr. Fox, 257.

Chess, observations on, 218—220. On the Automaton Chess-Player, *ib.*

Christmas, its *good fare* poetically denounced, 98. Festivities, at the seat of an English country-squire, delineated, 204.

Cicero, his patriotic opposition to Antony, 501. His alliance with Octavius, 503. His vain efforts to recall Brutus from Thrace, 504. His death narrated, 505.

Cincinnati, rapid formation of that city, 124.

Climate of New York and of Rome compared, as to extreme heat and cold, 120.

Clyde islands, account of, 176.

Cold, its power of preserving meat, &c., 236.

Commerce, urgently pursued, unfavourable to literature, 300. Observations on, and on its changes produced by peace and war, 426.

Congress of nations, advised, to settle various political points, 527.

Connaught, statistical particulars relative to that province, 35.

Cora Linn, verses composed at, 134.

Corpora lutea, on the formation of, 290.

Coryvrechan, the Charybdis o Scotland, account of, 49.

Creation, beauty of, lines on, 209.

Crystallized bodies, on the action of, 399.

Cumbray, great and little, those islands described, 180.

Cuvier, M., on the head of an Orang-Outang, and on a Tapir, 487.

D

Dabney, Mr., specimens of his poems, 306.

Davy, Sir H., on the formation of mists, 291.

——, Professor, on combinations of platinum, 398.

Dion, a poem, specimen of, 135.

Dissociation, remarks on, 315.

Divorce, observations on Milton's doctrine of, 144.

Doddington, Mr., letter to, from Voltaire, 540.

Drake,

Digitized by Google

Drake, Dr., his translation of a passage in Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered, 358.
Dream, poem on, 272.
Duelling, among the Greenlanders, 262.
Dunstaffnage, its antient palace shorn of its pretensions, 47.

E

Earthquake, in Italy, extraordinary effects of, 516.
Edwards, Dr., on respiration, 477.
Elba, account of that island, 276.
Elizabeth, Queen, observations on the dramatic writers of her age, 60.
Ellen Fitzarthur, specimens of that poetical tale, 431.
Emigration to America, classes among the English to whom it is desirable, 384. To what parts, 386.
England, political views of, 526.
Epilepsy, &c., said to be cured by actual cautery, applied to the head, 479.
Equations, differential, on arbitrary constant quantities in the integration of, 167. Method of finding the roots of, 413.
Esquirol, M., on hallucination, 478.
Etna, account of that mountain, and of an ascent to it, 517.
Etymology, specimen of a dictionary of, 446.
Eustace, Mr., his Classical Tour continued by Sir R. C. Hoare, 274.
Exports from the United States, in 1817, tabular view of their amount and direction, 376. Average exports to and from, 378.
Eye, account of a new membrane in, 296.

F

Ferdoosi, the Persian poet, account of, and of his Shahnameh, 449.
Finances of America, statement of, 382. Of the national capital, 384.
Fish, eaten by horses and cattle, 175. *note.*
Fishing, curious process and ceremonies attending, among the Montenegrins, 532.
Fœtus, human, found in the ovarium, case of, 398.
Fournier, M., on *burring* in pronunciation, 479.
Fox, Mr., characterized, and compared with Lord Chatham, 257.
France, view of the writers of the history of, 535. Events in, from 1787 to 1818, 536.
French, their national character delineated by Sir S. Romilly, 10.
Friendship, intimate, cemented by ceremonies among the Montenegrins, 531.
Frost, its remarkable antiseptic qualities, 236.
Functions, algebraic, on their introduction into equations, 169.

G

Gallic Eagle, verses to, 269.
Garveloch Isles, account of, 48.
Gaseous compounds, on the composition of, 394.
George III., pleasing anecdotes of, 440.
Germans, observations on their style of writing romances, &c., 184. 461.
Gestation, and incubation, different terms of, 480.
Godfrey's interview with the Angel, in the *Jerusalem Delivered*, poetic version of, 358.
Gold, administered as a cure for syphilis and scrophula, 488.
Granville, Dr., on a case of extra-uterine conception, 398.
Greco, Gioachino, account of, and of his work on Chess, 218.

Digitized by Google

Greenland, its sterility, 260. Manners of the people, 261.
Green old age, pretty verses on that idea, 357.

H

Hallucination, memoir on, 478.
Heroes of the West, a song, 307.
Herschel, Mr., on the action of crystallized bodies, &c., 399.
Hincks, Mr., on algebraic functions, 169.
History, art of writing, said to be on the decline in England, 498. Not the *forte* of French authors, 534. Review of Histories of France, 535.
Holdred, Mr., his discovery of a method of finding the roots of equations, 413.
Home, observations on the feelings connected with absence from and return to it, 360.
Home, Sir Everard, on the conversion of pus into granulations, 286. On *Corpora lutea*, 290. On the skeleton of the Proteo-Saurus, 295. On the reasons for that name, *ib.* On the Ova of the Opossum, &c. *ib.* On the component parts of the blood, 392.

I and J

Jacob, Dr., on a new membrane in the eye, 296.
Jan Mayen, island, account of, 231.
Ice-berg, description of a large one, 228.
Ice, convexed, its burning powers as a lens, 235.
Jephtha, poem on, 435.
Illumination, best mode of effecting, 395.
Imports into the United States of America, account of, 377.
Inscription, antient Latin, on a youth who died for love, 285.
John Bull, portrait of, by an American, 202.
Jonah, specimen of a poem on the history of, 208.
Ipecacuanha, experiments relative to, 473.
Ireland, the sad state of small farmers in, 34, 35. Unfavourable description of the town of Navan, 37. North of, state of its inhabitants, 40.
Iron, hot, applied to the head as a cure for epilepsy, &c., 479.
Isla, mineralogy of, 52.
Italy, qualifications of a traveller into, 274.
Julia Alpinula, poetic delineation of, 243. Her death-scene, 245.
Jura, description of that island, 50.
Ivy, verses on, 270.

K

Kerrera, account of that island, 47.
Kirkstone, pass of, lines on, 137.

L

Labour, remarks on the price of, 419.
Laugier, M., on the separation of nickel from cobalt, 485.
Lazzaroni of Naples, defended from general aspersions, 512.
Lens, burning, made of Ice, 235.
Lightning, its rarity in Arctic regions, 240.
Lime, experiments on the different sorts of, used in building, 481.
Lismore, description of that island, 174.
Literature, its sad state at Palermo, 514.
Lithion, a new metallic and alkaline substance, 484.
Little, Mr., on adjusting the back horizon-glass of Hadley's quadrant, 158.
Lochleven Castle described, 79.
Lodoiska, story of, from the German, 465.

Love

Digitized by Google

Love and Beauty, verses on, 312.
Lunar Perigee, on the mean motion of, 166.
Lungs, on the elasticity of, 396.

M

Man, unfavourable character of, 254.
Man, Isle of, mineralogically described, 182.
Manesse, Abbé, his extraordinary ornithological pursuits, 475.
Manufactures of America, report of, 380.
Marcet, Dr., on the gravity and temperature of Sea-water, 292.
Marlborough, Duke of, a French life of him, 337. Memoirs of, by Archdeacon Coxe, *ib.* His victory at Blenheim detailed, 343. His private character, 346. As a statesman and commander, 348—350.
———, Sarah, Duchess of, her character and death, 350.
Marlowe, Christopher, observations on, and on his writings, 61.
Marriage, observations on, 371.
Marvell, Mr., his poems, 310.
Melancholy, poetically depicted, 306.
Memory, observations on, 314.
Meteorology, of the Arctic regions, particulars in, 238.
Michel Angelo, anecdote of, 442.
Micrometers, See *Wollaston*.
Milton, observations on his Doctrine of Divorce, and the circumstances that led to it, 144.
Minstrelsy of Edmund the Wanderer, 313.
Mists, on the formation of, 291.
Montenegrins, various particulars respecting, 528—534.
Moreau de Jonnès, M., on peculiar animals in the West Indies, 487. On the population of those islands, 490.

N

New Barcelona, that province described, 84.
New Orleans, account of, 124.
New York, description of, 123.
Nickel, its separation from cobalt effected, 485.
North Pole, observations and facts respecting expeditions to, 226.
Novels, remarks on the composition of, 66. See also *Germans*.

O

Observations, astronomical, made at Dublin, 162.
Octavia, sister of Octavius, her high character, and motives for espousing Antony, 506.
Octavius, his career after the death of Cæsar, 502—510.
Ocythoë, observations on that genus, 296.
Ova of the Opossum, &c. memoir on, 295.
Oxygen, on its combination with water, 491.

P

Palermo, existing state of literature there, 514.
Passengers landed in America in the year 1817, numbers of, 125.
Penal code of this country, remarks on its revision, 4. 9.
Penitentiaries, observations on, 403.
Persia, its supposed subversion by Russia, and application to England for assistance, 523.
Philadelphia described, 124.
Plants, in the northern counties of England, remarks on their geographical distribution, 317.
Platinum, on combinations of, 398.
Pollio, Asinius, account of, 509. His saying on writing against Octavius, *ib.*

Poor-

Digitized by Google

Poor-rates, observations on, 321. Suggestions for employing the poor, 324, 325. Poor-rates in reality levied on the value of land, 425.
Population, of the provinces of South America, 88. Of Brazil, 90. Of the United States of America, 124, 125.
Proteo-Saurus, account of, 295.
Provisions, observations on the advancement of their price, 422.
Prussia, her aggrandizement advised, 525.
Punishment, observations on, morally considered, 404.
Pus, on the conversion of, into granulations, 286.
Puzzolana, See *Lime*.

Q

Quadrant, on adjusting the back horizon-glass of Hadley's quadrant, 158.
Quakers, specimens of poems by writers of that sect, 243. 269.

R

Red Man and Bonaparte, interview between, 214.
Reformer, political, character of, 253.
Refractions, astronomical, investigations of, 164.
Rent, origin of, and inferences from the nature of it, 418. Effects of a tax on, 420.
Respiration, experiments on, 477. 488.
Ribs and Pleura, diseased portions of, successfully removed, 489.
Richerand, M., his operation for removing a part of the ribs and pleura, 489.
Roads, in America, account of, 119. Antient Roman, 278.
Robbers in Italy, stories of, 513.
Rock-crystal, on the methods of cutting, 402.
Rome, republic of, history of its subversion, 499.
Romilly, Sir Samuel, eulogy on, 1. Memoir of, 7. Specimen of his parliamentary speeches, 15.
Roscoe, Mr., tribute to, by an American writer, 203.
Russia, supposed political views of, 522.

S

St. Augustine, in Florida, described, 107.
Saint Hilaire, M. *Geoffroy*, on the classes of vertebrate animals, 476. 488.
St. Kilda, account of that island, 44.
St. Vincent's, plantation at, belonging to Sir Wm. Young, excellently regulated, 86.
Salpa, a non-descript, notice of, 51.
San Martin, General, character of, 93.
Sand-stone, in the islands of Scotland, observations on, 42. 45, 46.
Saussure, M. de, on the decomposition of Amidine, 288.
Say, Mr., on the genus Ocythoë, 290.
Scarba, island, account of, 49.
Schlegel, M., his opinion of English historical works, 498.
Scipio, verses on the banishment of, 309.
Scotland, proof of the existence of forests in, two centuries ago, 391. The geology of, ably reported by a French writer, 493.
Sea-water, observations on the colouring of, 232. On the specific gravity and temperature of, in different regions, 292. On its saline contents, 294. Experiments on, 473.
Sea-weed, and fish, eaten by cattle and horses, regularly and by choice, 175. *note*.

Seil,

Digitized by Google

Seil, island, particulars of, 47.
Selenium, a new metallic and acid substance, 485.
Sensation, analysis of, 314.
Shah-nameh, of Ferdoosi, translation of that poem into German, 449.
Shark, Greenland, its insensibility to pain, and tenacity of life, 363.
Shipping of America, estimate of, 379.
Sicilian Vespers, account of, 444.
Sicily, particulars respecting, 280.
Sijavesh, story of, from Ferdoosi, 456.
Slate, observations on the position of, in the island of Luing, 48.
Snow-storm in Scotland, January, 1794, described, 265.
Sonnet, by an American poet, 313. By Mr. Webb, 330.
Spence, Lieut., his Minstrelsy of Edmund the Wanderer, 313.
Spirits, evil, observations on their supposed existence, 443.
Spitzbergen, particulars respecting, 228.
Staffa, mineralogy of, 43.
Stamboul, Captive of, account and specimens of that poem, 246.
Storm, See *Snow-storm*.
Sugar, on the production of, from farinaceous substances, 288.
Sun, force of its rays reflected from ice, 240.
Sweden, its independence necessary to Great Britain, 523.
Sylphs of the Seasons, a poem, 310.
Syracuse, some account of, and of an antiquarian Abbé there, 529.

T

Taormina, remains of the theatre at, 282. Of the Naumachia, 283. Fine convent at, and luxury of its occupants, 515.
Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered, translation of a passage in, 358.
Taxation, principles of, 423. Effects of heavy taxes, 424.
Tessier, M., on the terms of gestation and incubation in different animals, 480.
Test-Act, remarks on, 437.
Thénard, M., on the combination of oxygen with water, 491.
Thermometer, differential, account of, 396.
Thunder-shower, a sonnet, 330.
Time, observations on the effects of, 442.
Tiriot, M., letters to, from Voltaire, 540.
Tory, character of, 252.
Tragedy, observations on the composition of, to make it adapted for acting, 53. Specimen of Mr. Knowles's Virginius, 55.
Trap-vein, remarkable, account of, 178.
Travelling abroad, remarks on its effects, 374.
Trotter, John, memoirs and character of, 32. 39.
Turkey, its danger from the designs of Russia, 523.

V

Vertebrate animals, on the classes of, 476.
Vicat, M., on the different sorts of lime used in building, 481.
Vince, Mr., his proofs of the binomial theorem, 159. On a water-spout, 161.
Violet, a sonnet, 331.
Voltaire, M. de, specimens of his *English* letters, 540.
Vomiting, observations on the power of, 478.

W

Wall, natural, in North Carolina, description of, 490.

Walrus,

Digitized by Google

Walrus, probably mistaken for a Mermaid, 362.
Wandering Jew, an essay, 372.
Washington city described, 124.
Water-spout, account of, 161.
Wellesleys, antient seat of that family in Ireland sold and neglected, 33.
Whale, common, particulars in the natural history of, 361. Account of the whale-fishery, 364. Dangers of, 365.
Whig, character of, 253.
Wollaston, Dr., on cutting rock-crystal for micrometers, 402.
Woman, heart of, verses on, 434.

Y

Young, Sir William, his plantation at St. Vincent's excellently conducted, 86.
Yule-clog, explanation of, 205. *note.*

Z

Zerdusht, account of, 459.
Zohak, story of, from the Shahnameh, 451.

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